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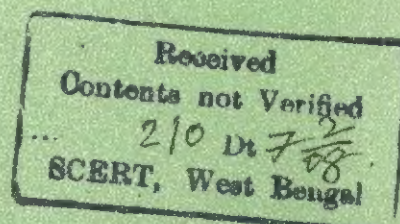
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VOLUME - 84

(DECEMBER - 2007)



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STATE RESOURCE CENTRE FOR ADULT EDUCATION

LITERACY HOUSE, ANDHRA MAHILA SABHA

O.U. ROAD, HYDERABAD - 500 007

ANDHRA PRADESH

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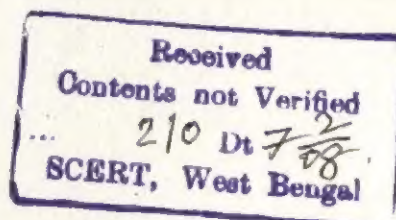
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1954-1955

Received
General and Printing
J. C. D. 1955
SECRET, West Virginia



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PSYCHOSOCIAL PROBLEMS OF ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

Sarita Saini

Abstract

The present study was undertaken to investigate the psychosocial problems peculiar to adolescent children of Chandigarh. Adolescent children face personal and social problems due to changing lifestyle of the city and competition in the field of education and vocation. A sample of 415 adolescents was drawn randomly from 8 government and private schools of Chandigarh, to study the psychosocial problems of adolescent children. The results revealed that adolescent children face maximum problems in the areas of Social Recreational Activities (SRA), Personal Psychological Relations (PPR), Social Psychological Relations (SPR) and Adjustment to College Work (ACW).

Introduction

The period between 13 to 17 years comprises the adolescent stage. An individual with unlimited capacities and enthusiasm, turbulent and emotionally overconfident, but with strained differences is known to be an adolescent. Adolescence is a stage of turmoil and turbulence, of stress and strain. It is a period of development in various areas and corresponding adjustments. It is the time when adolescent children need

maximum attention and care of their parents.

Robinson (1950) described the psychological problems of young people as those related to adjustment, which may be personal, curricular, vocational and financial, skill problems and maturity problems. Sociological problems have their loci in home, school and vocational situations. Cole (1954) has grouped adolescent psychological problems into eight interest and activity areas

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i.e., emotional maturity, establishment of heterosexual interest, general social maturity, emancipation from home control, intellectual maturity, the beginning of economic independence, adequate use of leisure time and the establishment of an interest in general principles of conduct.

During this period self-awareness, self-realization, self-assertion and changes in interest develop gradually. The adolescents find themselves taking interest in the opposite sex, social and recreational activities and even the books of a type that s/he formally scorned. S/he realizes that s/he has to look like an adult, is expected to behave as an adult and consistently struggle for a status. His/her desire for independence loosens his/her ties with parent. Furthermore, the adolescent social problems involve learning to adjust to other people and to new and different situations. Being deprived of status in society leads to a state of chronic frustration in which irritability and emotionality are intensified. Exaggerated demands for independence, generalized contempt for adults and established values, conceit, arrogance, defiance of authority and hostile attitude towards parents and others are the common forms of

aggression the adolescents exhibit (Gessell and Ames, 1956; Dixon, 1958).

According to Moser and Moser (1963), general problems of personal nature as found in college and university students besides the academic problems are lack of social aptitudes, romantic involvement, problems of finance, undesirable habits, homesickness and lack of self-sufficiency. According to Ausubel (1977), psychological problems include personality difficulties like those of adjustment, emotional problems as those of irritability, restlessness, swings of temperament, shyness, hesitancy, negativism, self-consciousness, feelings of embarrassment and inadequacy. Conflicts related to sex, emotional upsetting, indecision, crisis of purpose and meanings of life are some of the other situations, which lead to psychological problems. Children during the mid or late adolescence period are concerned with the problems relating to college grades, ability to graduate, how to study effectively, selecting a career, training needed and opportunities available etc. The social and personal problems relate to shyness, feeling of inferiority, social sensitivity and making friends, lacking leadership ability

and lacking skills in sports and games etc.

The various kinds of problems enumerated above show that problems refer to needs and concerns of the individual that require their handling and resolution with or without specialized help, depending upon the potential and the level of maturity of the persons concerned.

Sample of the Study

The present study was conducted on a sample of 415 adolescents selected from the government and private senior secondary schools of U.T., Chandigarh, within the age group of 14 - 17 years. Stratified random sampling technique was used for the selection of the sample.

Tools Employed

Mooney Problem Checklist (College Form.1950) was the research instrument employed for the checking of the problems in the following eleven areas:

- Health and Physical Development (HPD)
- Finances, Living Conditions and Employment (FLE)
- Social and Recreational Activities (SRA)
- Social Psychological Relations (SPR)

- Personal Psychological Relations (PPR)
- Courtship, Sex and Marriage (CSM)
- Home and Family (HF)
- Morals and Religion (MR)
- Adjustment to College Work (ACW)
- The Future Vocational and Educational (FVE)
- Curriculum and Teaching Procedure (CTP)

Statistics Employed

In this study Mean and SDs were computed to find out the psychosocial problems of adolescent children.

Findings and Discussion

The Mean scores and SDs of the total sample of 415 students at the +1 stage on the 11 variables as has already been mentioned are given in Table 1 Table 2 shows rank order-wise problem areas with their corresponding mean values.

The Mean scores of the total sample for the variables of MPCL (in order of hierarchy) are 9.56, 8.91, 8.31 and 8.14 for the areas Social Recreational Activities (SRA), Personal Psychological Relations (PPR), Social Psychological Relations (SPR) and Adjustment to College Work (ACW). The corresponding values

Table-1: Means And Standard Deviations For Different Problem Areas for the Total Sample (N=415)

S. No.	Variable Codes	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	HPD	6.00	3.70
2	FLE	4.99	4.54
3	SRA	9.56	5.09
4	SPR	8.31	4.36
5	PPR	8.91	4.94
6	CSM	5.83	5.04
7	HF	7.01	4.66
8	MR	6.45	4.56
9	ACW	8.14	4.80
10	FVE	6.97	4.90
11	CTP	6.53	5.41
12	TS-MPCL	78.71	42.27

of SDs are 5.09, 4.94, 4.36 and 4.79, respectively. The Mean scores for the areas Home and Family (HF), Future Vocational and Educational (FVE), Curriculum and Teaching Procedure (CTP) and Morals and Religion (MR) are 7.01, 6.97, 6.53 and 6.45, respectively. The SDs are 4.66, 4.90, 5.41 and 4.56, respectively. The Mean scores and SDs for the remaining three problem areas i.e. Health and Physical Development (HPD), Courtship, Sex and Marriage (CSM) and Finances, Living Conditions and Employment (FLE) are 6.00, 5.83, 4.99; 3.70, 5.04

and 4.54, respectively. The Mean score and SD for the total score on MPCL are 78.71 and 42.27, respectively.

Discussion of Results

The results presented in table 1 indicate that the Mean score of the total sample under study on the total score of Mooney Problem Checklist (TS-MPCL) is slightly on the higher side. The value of Standard Deviation is also higher which indicates that the scores are quite scattered. Higher Mean scores may be interpreted to mean that the adolescents in the total sample are not free from psychological problems, but their

Table-2: Rank-Wise Means of the Problems in Each Problem Area of MPCL for the Total Sample (N=415)

S.No.	Variable Codes	Mean	Ranks
1	SRA	9.56	1
2	PPR	8.91	2
3	SPR	8.31	3
4	ACW	8.14	4
5	HF	7.01	5
6	FVE	6.97	6
7	CTP	6.53	7
8	MR	6.45	8
9	HPD	6.00	9
10	CSM	5.83	10
11	FLE	4.99	11

experiences of problems in different areas are of varying intensity.

The Mean scores of the total sample in problem areas like Social Recreational Activities (SRA) and Personal Psychological Relations (PPR) are close to each other and they are higher in rank order as compared to scores in other problem areas. The higher Mean scores in them show more of problems faced by the students in these areas. It can, therefore, be deduced from the study that the workload tends to overburden the adolescents in the transitional process from high school to senior secondary level where there is more of stress on bookish

knowledge in order to gain more marks. The school and society as viewed by the adolescents themselves may not be providing adequate interaction and recreational facilities to them. This results in their getting few chances for self-expression and they are likely to develop feelings of inadequacy, emotional upsets and lack of confidence etc. They feel unsure and diffident about their own decisions. They need someone at home to share their feelings and personal problems failing which they feel unhappy and frustrated.

The Social Psychological Relations (SPR) and Adjustment to College Work (ACW) are the two

problematic areas that get ranks 3 and 4 in case of the total sample. Problems arise due to the fact that adequate facilities for interaction may not be available to the adolescents. They want social approval for various modes of their behavior. They need recognition also in the school as well as in society. Moreover in the school, they might have to face sudden changes in the courses. In today's world of hard competition they have to keep pace with the latest trends and they also want to do well in all the areas - academic as well as others. In case of their not being able to achieve what they want to, they feel frustrated which results in their having to face problematic situations around.

In the case of Home and Family (HF) and Future: Vocational and Educational (FVE), the problems arise due to the fact that parents expect too much from their children. Parents want their children to be very good in academic achievement. Children sometimes, have different kinds of interests, which the parents are not ready to accept. Adolescents in this situation feel stress and strain. Moreover, parents want them to take up white-collar jobs. This also creates tension among the adolescents about their future

vocation. Young adolescents want to make independent decisions about their future. Further, the question of uncertain future and unemployment becomes a source of conflict and frustration for them.

Curriculum and Teaching Procedure (CTP) and Morals and Religion (MR) have also become a source of problem for the adolescents. Adolescents have to face problems in school due to diversification of courses at +1 stage, strikes in schools and colleges, both by the students and teachers, poor examination system, too much stress on theory subjects, poorly coordinated campus activities and lack of recreational facilities both in school and at home. On the other hand morals and religion are also a source of problems for the adolescents as there is a conflict of ideas between science and religion. Most of the morals have become outdated with the coming up of new technology, especially the Computers and Internet etc. These have become man's best decision-making tools. Scientific temper may also clash with beliefs and values that have to do with morals and religion. Hence, they feel a crisis vis a vis this issue.

Health and Physical Development (HPD), Courtship, Sex and Marriage (CSM) and

Finances, Living Conditions and Employment (FLE) are the areas of least concern for the total sample. This can be explained in terms of majority of the adolescents being in good health and generally enjoying a state of physical well-being, more so in the city life. Their interest in exercise, bodybuilding and sports etc. shows more of energy available for physical activities. Health and physical development hardly pose a problem for them. Moreover, in the city life, parents take extra care of their adolescents and try to procure best medical facilities for them as and when needed. The area of Courtship, Sex and Marriage (CSM) is also of least concern to them because in the city life parents understand the needs of the adolescents and they don't impose undue restrictions on them. Adolescents also understand what their parents want from them and they also don't take undue advantage of their freedom. Finances, Living Conditions and Employment (FLE) for Indian adolescent students are usually less problematic since they are well looked after till such time, as they are fit for taking up jobs and be on their own. Part-time employment is also very rare, particularly for the adolescent students in our culture. Moreover, in our Indian society,

women are also entering the job market. Dual earner families are now very much prevalent due to this reason also. There is little problem regarding finances, living conditions and employment. These being areas of least concern are thus explicable.

The results presented in table I indicate that the Mean score of the total sample under study on the total score of Mooney Problem Checklist (TS-MPCL) is also on the higher side. This indicates that the students' sample under study does have problems, which need to be taken care of.

Educational Implications

On the basis of the findings of the present research, the researcher has following suggestions to the teachers, parents and counselors so that they may help the adolescents in facilitating their development.

- Parents, teachers and the community in general need to be empathetic towards the major needs and concerns of adolescent children. This enables them to have good relations with adolescent children.
- Educational and vocational counseling is essential for helping young students with

their problems and for their general well being.

- In schools/colleges and at home also adolescent children should be provided with recreational activities to keep themselves busy and to help them utilize their leisure time for productive work.
- The curriculum should be so framed that the adolescents are able to earn and learn simultaneously. This would make them feel more self-dependent and confident.
- Due attention should be paid to the period of adolescence since the students at this stage are more prone to encounter various psychological problems which are likely to affect their physical, mental,

emotional, health, home and social adjustment.

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U.N. report urges steps to help in youth-adult transition

This may be the "best educated generation of youth in history"

V. Jayanth

CHENNAI: In addressing the challenges the youth face in their transition to adulthood, policymakers must focus on developing their capacities through greater investment in areas such as education, health and skills training, while providing them opportunities to participate in development, the United Nations World Youth Report 2007 has said.

"Because of their sheer size, and also because of their higher level of education, the 1.2 billion youth, aged 15 to 24 in 2007 and constituting 18 per cent of the world's population, are an essential and critical part of the development process of our societies," according to the report, released on Monday.

"Never before has this age bracket constituted such a large share of the overall population. Further, 15 to 24-year-olds constitute 25 per cent of the working age population," the report notes. Today's young people are overall the best educated generation of youth in history. However, for many young people, the transition to adulthood is slowed down by poverty and their inability to find decent work."

Investments in youth have

- For many, transition to adulthood is slowed down by poverty
- In all regions, young people have limited access to health care

improved in all regions over the years, and young people's access to education has expanded, says the report, which focusses on "Young People's Transition to Adulthood: Progress and Challenges." Yet, in all regions, the transition has been affected by poverty. "Because of poverty, and sometimes because of social and cultural constraints, many young people are excluded from accessing quality education, decent employment, health and other resources and services."

Noting that better education has not yet become a springboard for many youth to move out of poverty, the report says: "In many places where public sector education has fallen short, private education is on the rise. Many more young people, including girls, have completed basic education than ever before, and many now have access to higher levels of education... School attainment varies by wealth in most countries around the world. And despite policies to provide free education in many countries,

costs for books, uniforms, and transportation are too high for many households."

In all the regions, young people have limited access to quality health care even though they face a more complex health environment. The lack of education and access to contraception leads to early pregnancies, which pose health risks and reduce the future opportunities of young mothers.

An increasing number of new threats to their health, especially the HIV/AIDS epidemic, has added to the difficulties the youth experience in several regions, especially in Africa, and in the transitional economies of Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States, says the report.

Of the global youth labour force of 633 million in 2005, some 353 million — or 55.7 per cent — lived in Asia. "Among the most important factors that will influence whether and how Asian economies continue to benefit from their sizeable youth population is how much of an

opportunity youth have to develop their potential through education, decent employment opportunities and adequate health care."

The report says access to education has expanded in many parts of Asia, and the gains are most noticeable at the primary level. Girls are increasingly benefiting from primary education. In India, for example, the proportion of girls enrolled for primary education rose from 84 to 96 per cent between 1998 and 2002. "Nevertheless, many countries in the region, particularly those in South Asia, still have a long way to go to achieve gender parity in education." "Youth living in poverty, youth living in rural areas, girls, and young women, youth with disabilities, youth from ethnic minorities, and youth who are refugees or have been displaced by war or natural disasters, have benefited less from progress in the region."

A striking feature that the report highlights relates to migration. "Asia is a major receiving and sending region for migrants. Job opportunities outside home communities and countries have encouraged millions of young Asians to become mobile on both a permanent and non-permanent basis."

Separate And Unequal

- 5 DEC 2007 TIMES OF INDIA, HYD.

Women-specific laws and courts could boomerang

Ratna Kapur

Debates following the International Day for the Elimination of Violence Against Women a few days ago, some critical issues have come to the fore. Is it time to advocate for a complete separate apparatus of courts, law enforcement mechanisms and laws for women? What are the strengths and limits of such a proposal? The issue of separate courts for women or separate disputes has been a subject of debate for many years. A number of states have already set up special courts for women, including Maharashtra, with proposals pending in Karnataka and Delhi. These courts are taken on different incarnations at the state level with the Maharashtra courts designated as family courts to deal with family disputes and matrimonial matters; the Delhi courts are intended to deal exclusively with sexual violence cases. However, the idea behind separate courts is to deal speedily with atrocities against women.

In 2006, a Bill to set up special courts for women was introduced in the Lok Sabha. The courts are intended to deal primarily with offences of rape, criminal sexual assault, mental injury and sexual harassment against women. The courts are to be presided over by a chief judge, with additional judges appointed depending on the requirement in specific cases, and at least half of the judges' posts are to be reserved for women. The idea behind these special courts is that they will provide speedy justice to women and be women-friendly as well. These courts are intended to provide a more private space for women, especially to rape victims who are often traumatised by the trial process that currently exists.

The idea of separate women police cells has been mooted from time to time. The Centre has been advising state governments regarding steps that need to be taken, especially at the level of law enforcement, to afford greater protection to women and in particular to prevent crimes against them. These advisories

include gender sensitisation of the police, adopting appropriate measures for swift and effective punishment to public servants found guilty of custodial violence against women, minimising delays in investigations of murder, rape and torture of women and setting up 'crimes against women cells' in districts where they do not exist.

The National Commission for Women has also undertaken visits to various states to review the status of women and conduct its own investigations in certain cases of serious incidents of crime against women. The commission's findings indicate that the level of sensitivity and care with which crimes against women are handled is woefully inadequate. It has also observed that the filing

of such initiatives might actually boomerang. Addressing women's issues of violence in a separate court structure could sequester women's issues into a dark corner, where reports of violence and abuse become muted. The role of the media in bringing the spotlight to bear on issues of violence has been crucial.

Similarly, the assumption that women police cells would increase sensitivity towards female victims is not necessarily true. Unless there is also a simultaneous change in the thinking around women as subjects of rights rather than merely subordinate to male authority, the 'manning' of police cells by women is not per se going to make much difference.

Finally, the constitutional provision that enables laws to be enacted for women's benefit can be a double-edged sword. When women are treated as a 'special group' then assumptions about their inferiority, lack of decision-making capacity, weakness and passivity can be reinforced. These laws could end up reinforcing gender stereotypes and becoming a highly protectionist response to women, rather than being liberating. Such has been the case in the area of anti-trafficking interventions, which often collapse women's migration with trafficking and result in increased restrictions on women's movement and higher levels of scrutiny over women's sexual conduct. Similarly, sexual harassment guidelines and



of FIRs even in acutely abusive or violent cases continues to be a problem. The setting up of women police cells is one of the ways in which to alleviate these problems.

Finally, the idea of specific laws for women is provided for in the Indian Constitution. Laws against dowry, rape, sexual harassment and domestic violence have all been enacted on the basis of empirical evidence that such crimes are experienced primarily by women and that these experiences need to be specifically addressed in law. The constitutional provisions that enable such gender specific laws are intended to ensure women's right to equality.

While proposals for separate courts, police cells and specific laws for women are demands that women themselves are making, there is a need to be attentive to the ways in which

codes of conduct have inadvertently led to a censoring of sexual speech and conduct in the workplace. Such initiatives have literally resulted in sexual sanitisation, the further stigmatisation of sex as well as the curtailment of space for women's sexual autonomy.

When calling for special provisions, activists, advocates and policymakers need to ensure that such initiatives are framed as affirmative action measures, designed to eliminate the historical disadvantage women have experienced. Such measures are temporary and directed towards producing a more woman-positive environment. The history of 'separate, but equal' has demonstrated that such calls can reinforce and reproduce the very discrimination and stereotypes that such initiatives are intended to eliminate.

The writer is director, Centre for Feminist Legal Research.

Sex Work Is No Crime

12 DEC 2007

*Penalising clients will not help
the cause of prostitutes*

Bishaka Datta and Siddharth Dube

For the last year and a half, sex workers' organisations from Kolkata to Kerala have been protesting the proposed amendments to the Immoral Traffic Prevention Act (ITPA), 1956, which will leave them worse off than they already are. But who's listening?

On March 8, 2006, even before the amendments had been introduced in Parliament, more than 4,000 sex workers marched the streets of Delhi to draw political and public attention to the fact the amendments would deny them their already meagre livelihoods. Two months later, the department of women and child development introduced exactly the same set of amendments in Parliament.

What are these amendments and why are sex workers against them? To begin with, all customers and clients would be treated as criminals. This may satisfy those who see making money from sex as a crime or a form of coercion. And it will help put more hush money in the hands of conniving cops. But it makes little or no sense to sex workers or to those who recognise adult sex work as commerce rather than coercion, consensual rather than criminal.

At a conceptual level, the issue is this: why should any consensual sexual activity between adults — heterosexual, same sex, in exchange for money within marriage or outside of it — be viewed within a criminal framework at all? The keywords here are 'consent' and 'adult'. If these two conditions are met, there is no crime being committed. Unfortunately, that is not the view of prevailing wisdom.

As ITPA stands today, prostitution is not a crime per se. The law regulating it is ambiguous. When introduced in 1956 as SITA (the Suppression of Immoral Traffic Act), lawmakers did not want to penalise women engaging in prostitution, whom they saw as victims. Instead, they decided to punish those who profited from or exploited these women

Hence, prostitution did not get defined as a crime. But many conditions surrounding it got defined as crimes: soliciting, running a brothel and pimping. Thus legal framework was retained when the SITA was amended into the current ITPA in 1986.

From the point of view of women in prostitution, it makes no sense to not be able to solicit. It's like not being able to advertise your business. Studies have shown that despite the noble intentions of Indian lawmakers, the implementers of the very same law — the police — have used every means possible to harass sex workers on charges of soliciting and enrich themselves by taking petty bribes in lieu of dropping criminal charges. Jean D'Cunha's



study in Mumbai between 1980 and 1987 clearly showed that the worst victims of ITPA were prostitutes. The number of women rounded up for soliciting under the Bombay Police Act and ITPA far exceeded the numbers of brothel keepers or pimps arrested under the same laws.

Even today, sex workers all over India are routinely arrested even when not soliciting. AIDS activists and peer educators are harassed by police while distributing condoms and educating sex workers about HIV prevention. The proposed ITPA amendments would lift the ban on soliciting. This is a welcome move. But what is the point of removing penalties against soliciting, if the police can continue to harass sex workers under the provision that criminalises clients?

TIMES OF INDIA, HYD.

The proposed amendments only replace one set of ambiguities with another.

If there is one thing that the proposed amendments to the ITPA reflect, it is confusion. Trafficking is confused with prostitution, the result being the legislative framework does justice to neither. Although those who advocate the abolition of prostitution have always insisted that trafficking and prostitution are one and the same, the experiences of prostitutes show that they are not. Sure, trafficking and prostitution are linked but while some areas might overlap, large areas do not. It is true that girls and women in India are tricked, forced and sold into prostitution, just as they are trafficked for domestic work and coerced into marriage against their will. But large numbers of Indian women don't become prostitutes only through trafficking. Usually, many enter the trade to earn a living in the absence of other opportunities for employment, a result of being socially, economically and politically disadvantaged.

Both ITPA and the proposed amendments reflect a fundamental confusion about the role of law. What is the role of criminal law in contemporary society? Is it to regulate crime? Or is it to regulate public morality?

How does law constitute itself or get made in a democratic society? It does not get made from above, by the ruling class who decide how the masses should be regulated. It is a result of processes that hear the voices of and account for the concerns of those who are most affected by the laws being made.

For more than a year now, women in prostitution and sex workers' rights groups have actively lobbied members of the parliamentary standing committee set up to consider this matter. Earlier this year, the proposed amendments were referred back to the health ministry. Only recently, in a landmark decision, the ministry recommended that the amendment to criminalise clients and sex work be dropped. It's high time we listened to sex workers before actively destroying their livelihoods.

The writers have authored books on issues concerning sex work.

4

The spirit of success

DECCAN HERALD

18 DEC 2007

Badamgatti is a small hamlet in Haveri district under the Karnataka Community Based Tank Management Project (KCBTMP) implemented by the Jala Samvardhane Yojana Sangha (JSYS), a nodal organisation of Water Resources Department (Minor Irrigation), Government of Karnataka.

The objective of this project is to improve rural livelihoods and reduce poverty by developing and strengthening community-driven tank renovation. The project proposes to cover 2005 pilot tanks with an estimated command area of 72,000 ha.

The unique feature of JSYS project is the involvement of local community in planning, implementation and post-project management. The community shares a part of the capital cost (6 per cent each in cash and voluntary labour). Institution building in the form of Tank User Group, Tank Management Institute, Self Help Groups, appointing a water man (revival of traditional Neeraganthi system), etc. are also included in this World Bank funded JSYS-project. Capacity building of the villagers by conducting on-farm demonstration in water and crop management and providing training and input for income generating livelihood activities including vermiculture are also the components of the project.

Now-a-days, there is an increasing awareness worldwide about organic inputs in view of energy shortage, food safety and environmental concerns arising due to the use of chemical fertilisers and pesticides. Organic agri inputs include green manure, farm yard manure, vermicompost, rhizobium inoculants for legumes, azotobacter and azospirillum inoculants for non-legumes, blue green algae, azolla, etc. The compost prepared by using earthworms is called vermicompost. Earthworms bio convert the organic waste into plant nutrients and thereby act as a catalyst in protecting our environment.

Women in Badamgatti have successfully set up vermicompost units and turned into organic agri-input entrepreneurs. R N Hegde spells out the success story.



A vermicompost unit (above); Rajeshwari Hiremath, who is economically independent now (below).

Realising the importance of vermicompost for sustainable agriculture, JSYS took initiative for the promotion of vermicompost production activity. When the project started, Shri Matti Basaveshwara Integrated Tank Development Society came into existence in Badamgatti village. A tank user committee was also formed, which got revolving fund from JSYS. This committee in turn gave Rs 2,500 each to 10 farmers including two women to establish vermicompost units. Each farmer contributed Rs 2,500 on his own for the unit costing Rs 5,000. The units started the activity in March 2006.

The University of Agricultural Sciences, Dharwad conducted training and field demonstrations in establishing vermicompost units, which had a motivating effect on Badamgatti rural women. Not only two women members, but wives of eight other farmers got together and started Shri Laxmi Saraswathi Self Help Group. The Agriculture University, the Cluster Facilitation Team, an NGO (NEEDS) and JSYS District



Photos by the Author

Project Unit, Hanagal encouraged the women by providing technical guidance and required input. High yielding strains of African earthworms *Eisenia foetida*, *Eudrilus euginae* and *Perinoyx excavatus* were supplied to them.

Economics: Brick tanks of the size 3x1x0.6 m were constructed and care was taken to create adequate number of holes to facilitate the drainage of excess water. Cow dung and agro waste (straws, green leaves, cattle shed waste) in the ratio of 1:3 were mixed and allowed to decompose for

about two weeks. The tanks were well aerated and kept moist by the periodic sprinkling of water, especially the first 6 to 8 weeks. However, a few days before harvest, watering of the tanks was discontinued to allow migration of worms towards the bottom bed. So cemented trenches were constructed around each tank and it was filled with water to prevent the attack from a number of predators like rats, snakes, frog, lizards, ants, etc. BHC powder was sprinkled around the tanks and they were covered with thatched roof

to protect them from rain and provide shade.

A viable unit should have two tanks. The capital cost of each tank is Rs 2,000 and the recurring cost for one cycle (3 months) would be Rs 500 per tank. Considering Rs 5,000 for a unit, consisting two tanks, one kg earthworm was used for one ton raw material (farm waste) per tank. One tank yielded, on an average, 600 kg of vermicompost per cycle, valued at Rs 1,800. In a year, there could be four cycles. Further, one unit can sell 5 kg of earthworm seed material per annum at the rate of Rs 300 per kg. An income of Rs 1,500 for the sale of earthworms and Rs 14,400 from the sale of vermicompost will earn a gross income of Rs 15,900 per unit. So, net income from the unit would be Rs 11,900 per annum.

Ms Rajeshwari Hiremath proudly says, "I have sold 10 kg of earthworms to the tank user groups of nearby villages and got Rs 3,000. Now I can manage my house on my own. There is much demand for vermicompost. Farmers come from distant places to lift our stock for their cash crops like arecanut, coconut and other high value horticulture crops."

This SHG, as a whole, has produced one ton vermicompost valued at Rs 30,000, which is used by the farmers of their own village and also neighbouring villages.

Shri Laxmi Saraswathi SHG was honoured for its achievement in promoting vermicompost activity in the district by Haveri District Administration on Republic Day this year. Now there are about 20 units in the village, which have made an impact on nearby villages too. Not only has the need for fertilisers in Badamgatti village stands reduced now, but rural women have got full time employment in the village too, resulting in the reduction in migration to cities.

Thus, Badamgatti women have set an example and showed the way for sustainable agriculture for the other half a million villages of our country.

Touching lives, holding hands

DECCAN HERALD

1 DEC 2007

Its birth was accidental but Spandana, a women's organisation in Chennapatna, is today a movement that is bent upon establishing a society without discrimination. S Senthilir profiles the organisation that has grown enormously from being just a letterhead

Challenging the deep-rooted patriarchal set up in this system demands not only a strong ideological base but also the spirit and commitment of the people. And the need for an organisation that would work among the people to carry forward the ideals of an egalitarian society is not an ignorable fact.

Spandana, a women's organisation in Chennapatna, seems to have well-understood the requisites to establish a society bereft of discrimination. Subsequently, it has also well knit its resources to match the challenges.

Its birth though accidental, Spandana has grown to be an organisation with values that speak for the entire oppressed community.

Malini, one of the founder members of Spandana, says: "The dawn of Spandana is quite interesting. Earlier, I was working with an NGO for child care. One night we heard that there was a case of dowry death in our neighbouring village. But the NGO I was working in refused to handle the case. It became difficult for us to approach the police without a letterhead of an organisation. But, we friends thought over and wrote a complaint on the letterhead 'Spandana'. This was how Spandana was formed."

Malini left the NGO and started working for Spandana, which later formed an autonomous organisation for women. "My work in the NGO was concentrated on child care. But I always had an inclination towards women's issues and a strong desire to work with women. Through the

children in school, I began interacting with their mothers and formed a group which grew slowly to become a space for them to share their feelings. The experience of working with them provided an impetus for me to take up women's issues and work consistently with Spandana," she explains.

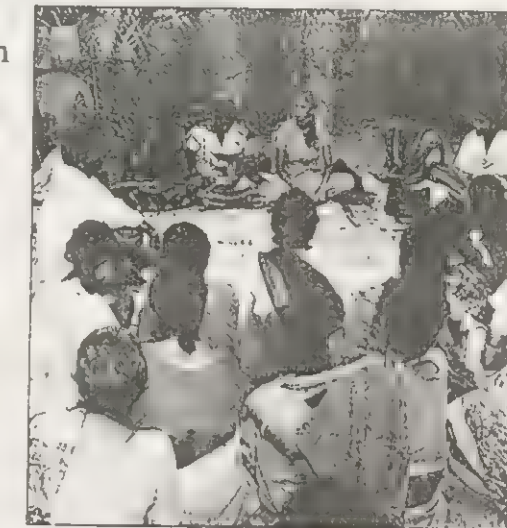
The organisation name that started just for a letterhead purpose has now etched its presence even beyond Chennapatna. With eight full-timers and six part-timers working for the organisation, it has moved on to cover 15 villages around Chennapatna.

Being registered in 2004, the varied experiences of the members have laid a strong foundation for the organisation. "After successfully handling the first case, many women started approaching the organisation with their problems. We began to receive cases of domestic violence, dowry harassment, sexual harassment, and even rape," says Malini.

"In 2006 alone, we had around 100 cases, with majority of them being dowry harassment cases," she adds.

Cases of violence

Each day, Spandana handles around 3-4 cases of violence on women. First, case intervention is done through counselling the victims. Later if need be, they help the victims in approaching the court. "Most of the times we try to solve the problem ourselves in order to avoid the tedious legal procedures," says Mehrnaz Bhanu, also a founder member of Spandana. Today, women are



Top: Members of Spandana interact with villagers during one of their village visits. Below: Members performing a street play to spread awareness.

still looked down as secondary citizens and the rising number of cases of violence on women has become a testimony to it, she adds.

The organisation believes that it is crucial to address the root cause of the problem as case interventions just provide a temporary solution.

On the lines of this, Spandana regularly organises awareness programmes to strengthen the political consciousness of the people. They conduct seminars on different topics like panchayat raj, glob-

alisation etc both in colleges and also in the villages they work.

Legal awareness camps also form a part of their awareness campaign. Apart from this, every Saturday they conduct discussions on various social issues specially for the members of Spandana. "These discussions help us in understanding the issues better and also in honing our articulating power as every person has to take turns in presenting a paper on different issues," says Dhakshaini, one of the members of Spandana.

Considering cultural programmes to be one of the important modes of communicating thoughts to the people, Spandana underlines that cultural activities is an inseparable part of awareness campaigns.

Trained by professionals in the cultural field, the members stage street plays on issues plaguing the society with a special focus on women during their campaigns. Named as Yuva Spandana, the cultural troupe of Spandana is playing a vital role in educating the people in the villages on issues like domestic violence, dowry harassments etc.

Village visits

Frequent visits to villages also forms one of the important programmes of Spandana. "It is significant for any social organisation to understand the problems of the people and the only way to do this is to work along with them. Spandana is like a supportive group and it believes that it is the people who should take initiative in solving the problems. Only then a feasible solution would be arrived," she says.

There are not just women who work for Spandana. The women's organisation believes that it is important to involve even men in taking up women's cause and hence they have not restrained men from taking part in the activities of the organisation unlike many women's organisations.

They have not just limited their work in handling women's issues, Spandana has also taken up cases of atrocities on Dalits, land issues etc. And their active participation in addressing the evils of society has given them a wide and unique recognition in Chennapatna.

Thus, by gaining strength from their success and learning new lessons from their failures, Spandana is marching forward with firm steps to reach their goal and towards their dream of establishing a new society.

Women facing domestic violence smoke more: Study

TIMES OF INDIA, HYD.

Kounteya Sinha/TNN

New Delhi: Indian women facing domestic violence seem to be turning to an equally harmful stress reliever - a quick puff. A study conducted by a team from Harvard School of Public Health has found that women in India who have faced or are facing violence at the hands of their spouses or in-laws have a 20 to 40% increased chance of tobacco use, irrespective of socio-economic factors like income and education level.

In fact, according to the team's findings, smoking risk increased for any adult living in households where domestic violence was prevalent, regardless of whether the person was a victim, a perpetrator or neither.

According to Dr S V Subramanian, associate professor in the department of society, human development and health at HSPH and a member of the research team, the study highlights yet another negative outcome of the social problem of domestic violence.

"Domestic violence is now definitely one of the risk factors for smoking in India. Over 40% of Indian women report being slapped, kicked, hit or beaten during their marriages. This research is important in terms of both tobacco control and the campaign against domestic violence," Subramanian, who is of Indian origin, said.

He added that the findings reinforce the notion that addressing the psychological and social context is key to the fight against tobacco. The study appears in the December issue of the journal, Tobacco Control.

To see if there was a link between domestic violence and tobacco use in India, the researchers, led by lead author Leland Ackerson, used data from India's National Family Health Survey-I, a cross-sectional survey conducted during 1998-1999.

The samples included 89,092 women and 2,78,977 family members aged 15 and older. The researchers found that for married women, 19% reported incidents of abuse. Over 85% of the

abused women said that faced violence from their husbands. Over 40% of such women were found to be at high risk of smoking.

Researchers, therefore, concluded that smoking may act as a stress reliever in households that experience domestic violence.

"This is the first study to show a link between domestic violence and tobacco use in a developing country. This link had previously been shown only in wealthy nations; we now found the same relationship in a place where poverty is endemic," Ackerson said.

Dr K Srinath Reddy, former HOD of cardiology at AIIMS, who is a strong activist against smoking, told TOI,

"The association between domestic violence and smoking seems to be genuine. Indians who smoke or chew tobacco say tobacco helps relieve them of stress. But it actually does just the opposite. Nicotine raises blood pressure and pulse rate. Numerous studies have shown that tobacco consumption is rampant in lower levels of society with low income and education. Violence is also higher in this section. However, in situations where families are already stressed because of food shortage, tobacco can aggravate the discord."

Smoking and chewing tobacco contribute to over 8,00,000 deaths in India every year. Over 29% of men and 3% of women smoke in India. The rate of tobacco chewing is around 29% for men and 12% for women.

Although rates of tobacco use are low among women, early indications are that these levels are on the rise. While the harmful effects of tobacco use are well documented, there has been little research at the stress factors associated with tobacco use among Indians.

The US had also earlier found in smaller studies an association between domestic violence and smoking, the study "Exposure to Domestic Violence Associated With Adult Smoking in India: A Population-Based Study", said.





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Chittoor women add another chapter to empowerment saga

29 DEC 2007

P Neelima | TNN

TIMES OF INDIA, HYD.

Diguvamagham (Chittoor): Women from a remote village are on a new path to empowerment. Coming from economically backward families and with only primary education, these women are not only empowering themselves financially but are also helping in turning the entire Diguvamagham village—a hamlet of 300 families—in Chittoor district into a major technical hub.

Over 120 girls and women are working in a private electronics firm, which was set up in 2000 in Diguvamagham, about 80 km from Tirupati, earning annual incomes of Rs 60,000. Most of them do not have proper educational qualification and some of them have passed only class 10. A majority of them come from the surrounding villages of Petamitta, Kondraju Colony, Bomma Samudram, Kothape-

ta and Pulicherla to work in the company.

Speaking to TOI, Srivalli of Pulicherla who handles the surface mount assembly line segment in the firm says: "I could not complete my class 10 due to financial crisis. Now, I can handle any module like a technical expert. I earn Rs 60,000 a year and my family is

ROAD TO DEVELOPMENT

extremely happy with my earning capabilities."

Jamuna, Karuna, Aruna and hundred others like Srivalli have a reason to smile as they handle almost Rs 50 crore worth business in the firm. According to plant in-charge G Venkatesan, special training is given to the girls for a period of three months to handle sophisticated surface mount technology (SMT) machines, wave soldering machines and coil winding machines, etc, before they are em-

ployed. Saying that many other girls are willing to join and make a decent living for themselves, Asha chips in: "Our aim is to make our hamlet a technical hub in the entire country". Villager Ramaiah whose daughter works in the firm says with pride: "Today most of the girls in our village are getting employment. Not only are they earning, but they are taking care of the needs of the families which is laudable."

Emboldened by the response from the village women and girls, the firm is planning to recruit 500 more in the next couple of years. Chairman of Amara Raja Batteries Galla Ramachandra Naidu said the firm was set up in the village with the sole purpose of empowering local women. "Today these girls have proved they can create wealth even with limited education in the field of electronics," he said.

Dhoksangavi experiments with self-help groups

BUSINESS STANDARD
- 4 DEC 2007

Dilip Athavale visits the village to assess the work of Srinivasan Services Trust

Sunita Pachange sits proudly behind the counter of her small provision store in the cozy village of Dhoksangavi near the buzzing industrial hub of Ranjangaon, 60 km from Pune. The bubbly, 20-something Sunita managed to start this store from the savings she made while running a telephone booth for the last three years.

Some 20 km away from Dhoksangavi is Golegaon, where Vaishali Chavan is busy cheering up the members of women's self-help groups Ekata, Samata, Namrata and Damini to build up stocks of authentic Maharashtrian snack specialities like kurdai and papdi which will be laid out in the forthcoming Bhimthadi Jatra — an exhibition cum sale of things produced by women's SHGs — to be held in Pune mid-December.

Amol Bandal, a commerce graduate and a diploma holder in information technology, is handholding the schoolboys of Dhoksangavi through the nuances of using a personal computer.

There is a common, invisible thread that flows through the three scenes. All of them are initiatives of Srinivasan Services Trust (SST), the philanthropy arm of the Chennai-headquartered TVS Group which has just completed a decade of its existence.

The SST has spearheaded the effort to add value to the life of residents in Dhoksangavi, which is a major source of workers, staff and contractors for Group company Harita Seating Systems. The company was among the first to commence manufacturing in the industrial estate of Ranjangaon and identified Dhoksangavi as the right location to initiate some social and development projects. The place lacked proper facilities of schools, roads, drinking water and health. Though the men-folk engaged mainly in agriculture or found jobs in industries in Ranjangaon, women came out as a sizeable human resource.

S. Anand Joshi, chairman of SST, began by explaining the concept of SHGs to the village women and helped them achieve a level of income generation where they could be graded for eligibility to get funds from banks or government organisations. SST typically provides them with the initial capital, education and training and then monitors the progress of the SHGs to ensure they achieve certain parameters of performance, he elaborates.

His effort of nearly a decade has yielded impressive results as many women from Dhoksangavi now earn close to Rs 2000 every month. There is



A meeting of self-help groups in progress in the Dhoksangavi village near Pune

TEN YEARS OF SRINIVASAN SERVICES TRUST

Srinivasan Services Trust completes a decade of social service this year. Over 11 years it has expanded its project network to 146 villages, across four states. SST according to TVS Motor Company Managing Trustee Venu Srinivasan endeavours to create holistic models of development

focusing on uplift of entire communities. The TVS group recently got the Mother Teresa Award for Best Corporate Citizen for "social responsibility beyond the call of duty." Its areas of operation are Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Maharashtra and Himachal Pradesh.

Chanda Salve who buys fish from the wholesale market at Shirur and sells it locally, Rukmini Pachange who runs a mess for the bachelors working for different factories in Ranjangaon or a group that hires generator set for functions such as weddings

Pushpalata Bandal, who supervises the work of the 20 SHGs with memberships exceeding 250, says the average earnings of the groups is between Rs 1600 to 2000 per month. The groups

have so far mobilised — and repaid — close to Rs 90 lakh from Bank of India. "The income generation programmes have seen the savings of member-women rising from Rs 200 per month to Rs 600 per month, entitling them to bigger amounts of funding," Pushpalata points out.

Vaishali Chavan's Groups in Golegaon churn out nearly 200 kg foodstuff every week that have ready buyers in the canteens that feed the industry

workers in Ranjangaon.

A more recent development is a computer training centre where Amol Bandal teaches school children how to use a personal computer. There are 11 boys who come to the centre regularly and have picked up introductory software skills, he says.

While these activities, on an individual level, are progressing, SST has also helped in developing common infrastructure such as building of a school block, a resource centre and initiating projects in watershed developments. "Improvement in the earnings, health and education levels of the villagers is a directly visible impact of the trust's initiatives," Joshi notes, adding that additionally, it firms up the bond between the TVS Group and the local community.

For the villagers, the take home is in the form of the improved success rate in the SSC results recorded by the school, or the fact that one girl student scored 177 out of 200 marks in the state CET and is now doing engineering in a college in Pune.

Domestic Violence Act misuse in focus

24 DEC 2007

Amitabh Shukla
New Delhi, December 23

THE CONTROVERSIAL Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act is becoming a new tool in the hands of "harassed" women in the Capital. Around 100 cases are being registered on an average per month under the Act implemented in the country from October last year.

Lawyers and organisations claiming to be the champions of Indian families are now preparing a petition against the Act saying it is breaking families and marriage as an institution.

From January to September this year, 874 cases have been registered under the Act. The Act, which is quite severe on any form of abuse of women, provides protection to wife or female live-in partner at the hands of husband or male live-in partner or his relatives. Domestic violence under the Act includes

THE HINDUSTAN TIMES:
actual abuse or threat of abuse, whether physical, sexual, verbal, emotional or economic.

Delhi Social Welfare Minister Yoganand Shastri said the government is more concerned on providing a level playing field to women. Shastri said the state government had schemes to empower women. "Construction of 13 working women hostels in the city, support to training and employment programme, providing short stay homes etc. are some of the schemes to empower women," he said.

Chairperson of the Delhi Commission of Women, Barkha Singh ruled out the possibility of any large-scale misuse of the Domestic Violence Act. She, however, said a few cases do come up where deliberate revenge by women is the motive. "Through proper counselling, the cases are settled amicably without any harm to the family," she said

ashukla@hindustantimes.com

Domestic violence makes people smoke

Kounteya Sinha | TNN

New Delhi: Indian women facing domestic violence seem to be turning to an equally harmful stress reliever — a quick puff. A study conducted by a team from Harvard School of Public Health has found that women in India who have faced or are facing violence at the hands of their spouses or in-laws have a 20 to 40% increased chance of tobacco use, irrespective of socio-economic factors like income and education level.

In fact, according to the team's findings, smoking risk increased for any adult living in households where domestic violence was prevalent, regardless of whether the person was a victim, a perpetrator or neither. According to Dr. S V Subramanian, associate professor in the department of society, human development and health at HSPH and a member of the research team, the study highlights yet another negative outcome of the social problem of domestic violence.

"Domestic violence is now definitely one of the risk factors for smoking in India. Over 40% of Indian women report being slapped,



kicked, hit or beaten during their marriages. This research is important in terms of both tobacco control and the campaign against domestic violence," Subramanian, who is of Indian origin, said. He added that the findings reinforce the notion that addressing the psychological and social context is key to the fight against tobacco. The study appears in the December issue of the journal, Tobacco Control.

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Researchers, therefore, concluded that smoking may act as a stress reliever in households that experience domestic violence. "This is the first study to show a link between domestic violence and tobacco use in a developing country. This link had previously been shown only in wealthy nations; we now found the same relationship in a place where poverty is endemic," Ackerson said.

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of stress. But it actually does just the opposite. Nicotine raises blood pressure and pulse rate. Numerous studies have shown that tobacco consumption is rampant in lower levels of society with low income and education. Violence is also higher in this section. However, in situations where families are already stressed because of food shortage, tobacco can aggravate the discord." Smoking and chewing tobacco contribute to over 8,00,000 deaths in India every year. Over 29% of men and 3% of women smoke in India. The rate of tobacco chewing is around 29% for men and 12% for women.

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22 DEC 2007

TIMES OF INDIA DELHI

Lack of land, no deterrent to grow mushrooms

HINDU
- 6 DEC 2007

Lal Muni Devi's net profit in a year is Rs. 19,000 without any investment

M.J. PRABU

The real success of agriculture lies not only in improving the lifestyle of small and marginal farmers but also upgrading and improving the lives of landless labourers who form the backbone of the sector.

Ms. Lal Muni Devi is one such landless labourer of Azad Nagar village on the outskirts of Bihar. She has been leading a life of poverty living in a thatched cowshed (making it her home) managing her family of six.

Poor labourers

Though not a farmer, Lal Muni and her family are among the hundreds of landless poor labourers who work for the local land owners.

All this changed when scientists from the Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR) Complex for Eastern Region, Patna, Bihar, brought together 25 women from her village to form a Self Help Group (SHG), called Mahila Utthan Samiti and taught them to grow mushrooms.

"The method taught by the scientists appealed to me as it did not require any land. Prior to this, I had never even heard of mushrooms till the scientists told me.

Ready market

"I then learnt to grow mushrooms (Oyster and milky white summer mushrooms variety). Both these varieties grow well in the dark and damp interiors of my house," she said. There is a market for them in the nearby city and wheat straw is



POVERTY ALLEVIATION: Ms. Lal Muni Devi, mushroom cultivator of Azad Nagar village in Bihar. - PHOTO: ICAR

available in plenty. The mushroom spawns are readily available and not expensive. Lal Muni earns Rs. 50-75 from oyster mushroom at the rate of Rs.8-10 per bag in addition to the meagre income from her family labour.

Good profit

"I used to work as farm labour since my childhood and now I am grateful to the scientists who taught me to earn my livelihood respectfully and independently. I learnt that I could grow mushrooms in my house and later found that they fetched a good profit too," she says with a broad smile. For the first two years,

to grow oyster mushrooms in 155 bags and has been able to harvest about 210 kg and got a net profit of Rs. 10,500.

She has also cultivated milky white mushrooms in 95 bags and has harvested about 130 kg gaining a profit of Rs. 9,400. Her net profit from December 2006 to July 2007 from mushroom cultivation was Rs. 19,900, without any major investment.

Though half of the women quit the SHG after ICAR stopped supplying free seeds, many of them came back as the income from mushroom generation was too good for them to resist.

Even the menfolk are learning this cultivation after seeing the price mushrooms fetch, explained Dr. Khan.

Self sufficient

"We want this SHG to become self sufficient before this mushroom project is totally withdrawn from the area," he said. "Our future remains bleak after the ICAR people leave us at the end of the project," she said with some concern.

"Though a lot of government officials and foreign dignitaries have been visiting my village which is socially and economically backward, nobody has helped us in developing our skills further," she laments.

For more information readers can contact Dr. A.R. Khan, Principal Scientist, Indian Council of Agricultural Research Complex for Eastern Region, P.O., Bihar Veterinary College Patna-800014, phone: 0612-2223962, email:khan.patna@gmail.com, mobile: 09431421960.

ICAR provided free seeds (called spawns) until the participants were able to generate their own income.

But from 2007 in addition to the free seeds supplied by ICAR they started buying their own seeds (to increase income) at the rate of Rs.50 a kg.

One kg of seed yields 10-14 kg of mushrooms. The oyster variety sells for Rs.50-75 a kg during winter and in summer the milky white mushrooms fetch Rs. 80-120 a kg, according to Dr. A.R. Khan, Principal Scientist, ICAR, Research Complex for Eastern Region, Bihar Veterinary College Patna. Muni Devi has been able

New scheme for victims of trafficking

Aarti Dhar

NEW DELHI: The Union Women and Child Development Ministry has drafted a comprehensive scheme for the prevention of trafficking and rescue, rehabilitation and reintegration of the victims of commercial sexual exploitation.

The Centrally-funded scheme, Ujjawala, will focus on prevention of trafficking of women and children for commercial sexual exploitation through social mobilisation and involvement of local communities, awareness generation programmes and related activities.

Poverty, low status of women, and lack of protective environment have been identified as the main causes of commercial sexual exploitation of women and children in India and even across the

- Reintegration into family a main component
- Scheme to be implemented through Social Welfare departments

international borders.

The scheme has been drafted to facilitate rescue of victims from the place of their exploitation and placing them in safe custody, providing rehabilitation services both immediate and long term to the victims by giving them basic amenities, counselling, legal aid and even vocational training.

Another important component of the scheme is facilitation of their reintegration into the family and society and repatriation of cross-border victims to their country of origin.

To be implemented in the States through Social Welfare departments, women's

development corporation, urban local bodies, public or private trusts and voluntary agencies, the scheme has five components: prevention, rescue, rehabilitation, reintegration and repatriation. Prevention would include formation of community vigilance groups, adolescent centres for girls and creating awareness through mass media and traditional methods.

Formation of network of police, non-government organisations, panchayats and tour operators would be used for gathering information on trafficking, if any, under the rescue component and incentives would be given to

decoy customers and informers.

Rehabilitation at the Protective and Rehabilitative Homes would also be the responsibility of the implementing agency that would also provide basic amenities, medical care and legal aid to the victims.

Education and vocational training form the part and parcel of rehabilitation while re-integration would include setting up half-way homes within the community where a victim can live and work. Those from across the border would be sent back to their native countries.

To be funded in two instalments in the next financial year, the scheme will be reviewed at the Centre once a year and evaluated in the middle of the Eleventh Five Year Plan.

26-1207H

Renuka has plan for remarriage of widows

INDIAN EXPRESS

23 DEC 2007

By TEENA THACKER

New Delhi, Dec 22: Union Minister for Women and Child Development (WCD) Renuka Chowdhury has an ambitious plan: to get the young widows of India remarried.

According to the figures available with her Ministry, there are 3.3 crore widows in the country. As per the 1991 census, widows account for 9 pc of the female population and only 40 percent of them are over 50 years of age.

The ministry plans to start from Vrindavan and then move to Varanasi, both considered "dumping grounds" for such unwanted women.

According to a Vrindavan Municipal Corporation study of 2006, there are over 3,105 widows in Vrindavan town itself. And there are 2,000-2,500 of them across Brajbhumi-Radhakund, Goveldhan, Barsana, Mathura.

The government will soon start a fresh survey to know their age and if they have been abandoned.

"The proposal is that they

should be given training so that they can earn their livelihood. The first thing, however, will be to get them re-married," Renuka told *Express*.

"There was a time when their lives ended with that of their husbands. Across India, widows were considered inauspicious, and many of them from upper



a ministry official.

The task is, however, not so easy as a recent survey shows

castes were forced to leave their homes and spend their lives in prayer in Varanasi and Vrindavan," said

Seventy percent said there were social and religious taboos to remarriage, 13 percent said they did not believe in remarriage. Yet there are 30 percent of them who had become widows by the age of 24.

Her ministry plans to play censor

By U ANAND KUMAR

New Delhi, Dec 22: Does Renuka Chowdhury's Women and Child Development Ministry plan to act as a censor?

While the I&B Ministry has already drawn flak over a proposed media Bill which private channels fear would pave the way for Centre's interference, now the Women and Child Development Ministry appears to be itching for a similar role.

The Eleventh Plan says one of the important tasks before the ministry would be to "curtail the harmful effects of television on women's lives."

The ministry aims to do this through a 'gender-informed media policy' which will have to be followed by all the television channels.

The Independent Representation of Women (prohibition) Act, 196 is already in force.

According to the Eleventh Plan document, approved by the National Development Council, the Government has observed that much of the television programmes propagate patriarchal values and show women in roles that are detrimental to them.

However, the Plan document was silent on the action the government should take in case the television channels fail to follow the Ministry's policy.

The document says: "The Ministry will harness this powerful medium of television channels to promote the message of gender equity through positive programming and information dissemination on laws and schemes."

The Ministry would engage in a public-private partnership with media experts in gender issues.

Women demand 11th Plan share

By OUR CORRESPONDENT

New Delhi, Dec. 17: Women groups have demanded changes in the draft document of the 11th Five Year Plan (2007-12) before it is placed before the National Development Council (NDC) on Wednesday. The groups have demanded that the government should make women "equal" partners and beneficiaries in the socio-economic development of the country envisaged with the creation of 70 million new jobs corresponding to the country's nine per cent economic growth in the

Plan. How can women access these

jobs with stark 21.7 per cent gap in literacy of men and women? The women's workforce is 28 per cent of which 97 per cent is in the unorganised sector.

"These figures are lower than Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and Pakistan. The government is not focusing on women's jobs in new economic areas and is instead pushing them towards agriculture, household industries etc. Wage disparities still exist besides low-level skills for women. Where are the policies

BOTTOMLINE

to make women mainstream beneficiaries of this nine per cent growth rate?" said Ms Veena Nayyar, president of Women's Political Watch.

Shedding light on the employment crisis for women, it was revealed that employment for women even in agriculture has gone down.

Expressing disappointment with the draft Plan that has "left out" 50 per cent of the country's population, women groups accused the Centre of adopting a "women-in-distress"

only approach. The approach to the 11th Plan has set four goals — to increase the sex ratio from 927 in 2001 to 935 in 2011; reduce MMR from 3.01 to 1.00 per-1,000 live births; reduce school dropouts by 10 per cent by end of the 11th Plan and ensure at least 33 per cent women are direct or indirect beneficiaries of all government schemes.

These four goals fall short of the key Plan goal of developing women's full potential to enable them to share the benefits of economic growth and prosperity, alleged women activists.

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India 2007: high growth, low development

P. Samath

The good news is that India's falling to rank 128 in the Human Development Index of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) is not really a decline. Even though it was ranked 126 last year. So say unnamed officials (at least, according to a report in one newspaper). It seems the truth is that we would have been 128 anyway, even last year, "had updated data been used for other countries." In short, we have not really slipped in rankings, you know, we were this bad all along. In Mumbai argot, "We are like this only."

To begin with, the rank of 128 puts us in the bottom 50 of the 177 nations that the UNDP Human Development Report looks at. Treat Adivasis and Dalits as a separate nation and you will find that nation in the bottom 25. Or subtract our per capita GDP ranking from the process and watch India as a whole do a slide. Meanwhile, even nations that are far below us in the rankings — and which have nothing like our growth numbers — do much better than us on many counts. So even if our HDI value took a tiny step up from 0.611 last year to 0.619, it means other nations did much better than us. And hence we went down to rank 128 this year.

Each year since 1990, the Human Development Report (HDR) of the UNDP publishes the Human Development Index (HDI). This index "looks beyond GDP to a broader definition of well-being." The HDI seeks to capture "three dimensions of human development: a long and healthy life (measured by life expectancy at birth). Being educated (measured by adult literacy and enrolment in primary, secondary and tertiary education). And third: GDP per capita measured in U.S. dollars at Purchasing Power Parity (PPP)."

Let us look at where we stand in the rankings of the index. El Salvador, which saw a

Even nations that are far below us in the HDI rankings — and which have nothing like our growth numbers — have done much better than us on many counts.

bloody civil war for over a decade from the 1980s, ranks 25 places ahead of us at 103. Bolivia, often called South America's poorest nation, is 11 steps above us at 117. Guatemala, nearly half of whose citizens are poor indigenous people, saw the longest civil war in Central America. One that lasted close to four decades and which saw 200,000 people killed or disappear. That too, in a nation of just 12 million. Guatemala ranks 10 places above us at 118.

In Africa, Botswana — ranked below us in the 2006 HDI at 131 — climbed four places above us at 124 this time. It replaced fellow African nation Gabon which quit that slot to move upwards to 119 this year. (Gee, their updated data arrived on time. Must be using a different courier service.) The Occupied Palestinian Territories, with all their woes, slipped six places to 106. Still well ahead of India.

In Asia, countries like Vietnam — victim of the bloodiest conflict since World War II — rose further in the charts, to rank 105 this year. Sri Lanka, of course, is way ahead of us at 99. So are nations like Kazakhstan and Mongolia. They too have risen in the ranks. The former from 79 to 73 and the latter from 116 to 114.

Note that some of these nations rank up to 30 slots above us. Others fall within 30 nations below us. Not one of them has had our nine per cent growth. Few of them have been touted an emerging economic superpower. Not even as a software superpower. Not even as a blossoming nuclear power. Together,

they probably do not have as many billionaires as India does. In short, even nations much poorer than us in Asia, Africa and Latin America have done a lot better than we have.

India rose in the dollar billionaire rankings, though. From rank 8 in 2006 to number 4 in the Forbes list this year, but we slipped from 126 to 128 in human development. In the billionaire stakes, we are ahead of most of the planet and might even close in on two of the three nations ahead of us (Germany and Russia). It will, of course, be some time before we erase the national humiliation of lagging behind the top dog in that race, the United States. (Which, by the way, dropped from 8 to 12 in the HDI rankings this year.)

The Cuban example

Cuba has zero standing in the roll call of billionaires. In terms of per capita income, it ranks low in the world. But when it comes to human development, it ranks 51 — that is, 77 places ahead of us. It figures in the HDI's 'High Human Development' group. This is a nation which has faced a huge economic blockade since its birth. U.S. sanctions ensure that almost everything is costlier in Cuba than in many other nations. In per capita terms, it spends four per cent of what the U.S. does on health but achieves better outcomes on most of the vital parameters of that sector. Despite its many disadvantages, it achieves a better HDI rank than Mexico, Russia or China. (All of which have gained more billionaires in recent times.)

But there is hope. Our top 10 billionaires are doing fine. "Their collective wealth has soared 27 per cent since July this year," *The Times of India* told us on its front page on October 8. The headline said they'd got "richer by \$65.3 billion" in just three months since July. That is, by more than Rs.119 crore an hour. Or not far from Rs.2 crore every minute. Of the 10, the TOI tells us, Mukesh Ambani alone "increased his wealth by roughly Rs.40 lakh every single minute."

It is doubtful if the wages of agricultural labourers went up by just Rs.40 (just 40, not lakhs) in years, let alone by the minute. But then we rank fourth in super-rich and 128th in human development. Most of our billionaires seem to be from Mumbai, also home to a quarter of India's \$100,000 millionaires. Mumbai is the capital of Maharashtra, perhaps our richest State on many counts. One that has seen close to 32,000 farmers commit suicide since 1995. Also a State where rural poverty has gone up even in official reckoning.

Meanwhile, the UNHCR records that almost a third of India's children, or 30 per cent, are below average weight at birth. In Sierra Leone, ranked at 177, rock bottom of the Human Development Index, it is 23 per cent. In Guinea Bissau and Burkina Faso, ranked 175 and 176, children with low birth weight account for 22 and 19 per cent. Even in Ethiopia, ranked 169, the figure is 15 per cent. So we're down there with the bottom five on that count.

Amongst children under the age of five, 47 per cent in India are underweight. In Ethiopia, that is 38 per cent. And in Sierra Leone, 27 per cent. We are home to the largest number of malnourished children in the world. When it comes to child nutrition and literacy, we jostle for space with the nations ranked lowest in HDI in the planet. And mostly we even beat them.

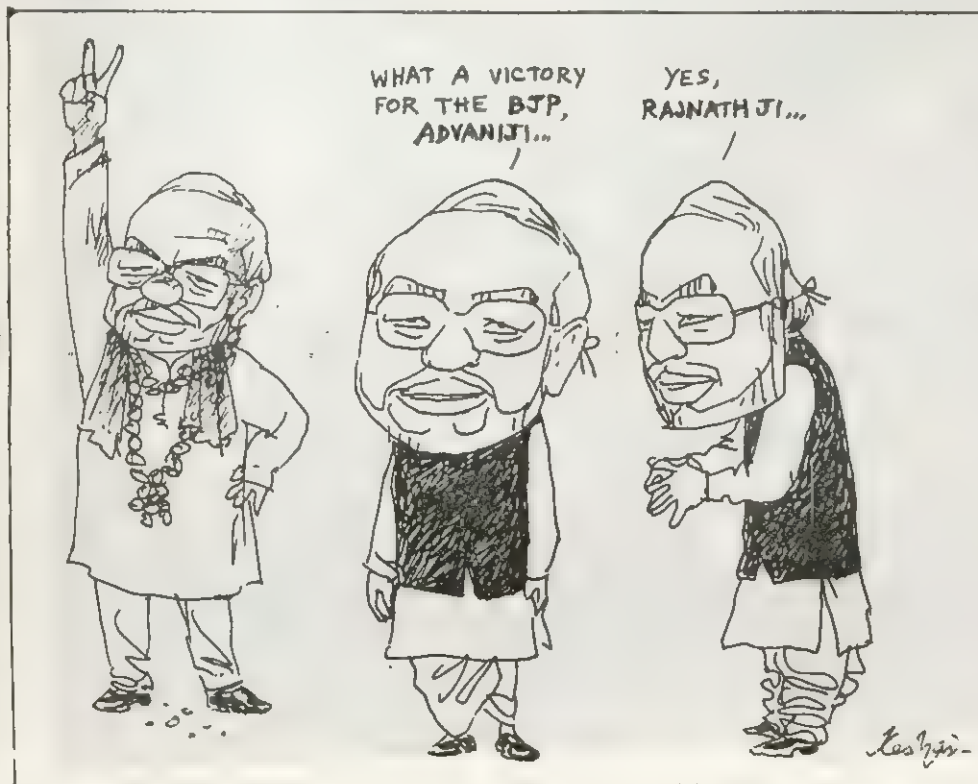
'Statistical glitch'

This week's papers report a curious new development. One which might further impact on our 'rank.' They report a World Bank study as saying that the Indian and Chinese economies might be smaller in size than we believe. Maybe almost 40 per cent smaller says *The International Herald Tribune* (December 9, 2007). "What happened was a large statistical glitch," says the IHT. But it's a glitch that matters. "Suddenly the number of Chinese who live below the World Bank's poverty line of a dollar a day jumped from about 100 million to 300 million." It turns out the overpaid elite number crunchers have been using obsolete data for a very long time.

The Bank's own survey lists new purchasing power parities for 100 countries benchmarked for the year 2006. Well, India figured in the study for the first time since 1985 and China for the first time ever. And so? India's GDP in PPP terms, the TOI notes, was \$3.8 trillion in 2005 before the new study. (Gee, by the new data after the revision, it stands at \$2.34 trillion. (In nominal dollar terms roughly \$800 billion.) Boy! These updated data are a nuisance. First it turns out we should have been HDI rank 128 last year, too. Now we learn that our economy is a lot smaller than we imagined. As the IHT says "This is not a mere technicality." It shrinks the relative size of developing economies by quite a bit. India's GDP per capita (PPP) falls from \$3,779 to \$2,341 with the new data. Also, as the TOI sadly notes, "We ain't a trillion dollar economy yet."

It is not clear yet how agencies other than the Bank, like the UNDP for instance, were working with PPP. Were they using updated measures or the old data? If the latter (which seems the case), and given India's entry in the Bank survey is recent, even our awful HDI performance could get worse. The captain has switched on the seat belt sign. Buckle up: we could be landing soon on the updated numbers.

CARTOONSCAPE



JEEVIKA MEGA PROJECT : EMPOWERMENT OF RURAL POOR IN BIHAR

Dr. Indrabhusan Singh & Dr. Usha Kumari

Poverty can be defined as a social phenomenon in which a section of the society is unable to fulfill even its basic necessities of life. The Planning Commission has defined the poverty line on the basis of recommended nutritional requirements of 2400 calories per person per day for rural areas and 2100 calories for urban areas.

Mass Poverty is one of the major critical problems confronting planners in Bihar. There is no denying the reality the soul of India resides in villages. 72.2 percent population of the country lives in villages whereas in Bihar the figure is 89.5.

Bihar is second largest and one of the most populated states in India. It has a geographical area of 94,163 sq km with a population density of about 880 per square km. The total population is 8.29 crore and out of that 188 lacs are the total main workers. Female Literacy Rate - 33.57%, in Rural Area 30.03,



The BRLP is the life saving drug to cure BIMARU states

Literacy rate in Scheduled Caste Women is 5.4% in Rural Area (Muzaffarpur 3.80%, Gaya - 7.37%, Nalanda - 6.97%, Purnia - 4.24%, Madhubani - 2.52%, Khagaria - 5.56%, Sitamarhi - 1.84%), Sex Ratio in Rural Area - 927, Population density in Rural Area 803, Average Annual Exponential growth rate 1991-2001 2.49%, Decaded population growth 1991-2001 - 28.33%, Total Rural Population is 74,199,596, Rural Area in sq. km 92358.40, Child Population in the Age Group 0-6 in rural areas - Male - 19.93%, Female - 20-20%, Number of Panchayat - 11,38,00, District-38, Death Rate 7.9, Infant Morality rate - 62 per thousand, in Boys 59% and Per capita income 2003-04 - 5780. It is observed that nearly 43% of the total work force is engaged as Agricultural Labourer. The details classification of the total workers in Bihar is as given below :-

S. No.	Particulars	No. of Workers (in 000')
1.	Total Main Workers	18795
	a. Cultivators	7713
	b. Agricultural Labourers	8114
	c. Livestock Forestry and others	64
	d. Mining and Quarrying	12
	e. Manufacturing, Processing, Servicing and Repairs in Household Industry	
	(i) Household industry	292
	(ii) Others	276
	f. Constructions	89
	g. Trade and Commerce	708
	h. Transport Storage and Commerce	188
	i. Other Services	1339
2.	Marginal workers	941
3.	Non Workers	44790

The focus of rural development in Bihar has mostly been along the same lines as followed by the central government. So, the state of Bihar, too, has focused on generation of employment opportunities, upliftment of underprivileged sections by enhancing beneficiary oriented quality of life, apart from providing several basic amenities, improving rural infrastructure and emphasis on agricultural development. Actually, poverty does not simply mean lack of adequate income; it must be viewed as a state of deprivation



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spanning the social, economic and needs context of people that prevents their effective participation as opportunities for the poor has remained as one of the important components of poverty alleviation and rural development for which a number of programmes have been initiated in India since the 1970's. The final link of this series of employment programmes (viz. IRDP, TRYSEM, SITRA, FWP, NREP, RLEGP, JRY, JGSY etc.) is a relatively Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY). Bharat Nirman Yojana & Swarna Jayanti Rozgar Yojana. It is conceived as a holistic scheme of micro-enterprises covering various aspects of self-employment, viz. organization of rural poor in self-help groups (SHGs), capacity building, training upgradation, credit and marketing.

Hence, the Government of India and Bihar Government adopted various strategies and programmes for rural development and employment generation in the last five decades to meet out these challenges. Poverty is a curse to humanity and the persons suffering from it are not only economically deprived of but are socially dejected ones; hence the focus of government policies and plans shifted towards poverty alleviation through area specific and target oriented programmes from 4th Plan onward. The yard brought new programmes to cover the failure of earlier ones, but the administrative set-up remained almost the same with minor changes. However, the actual position of Beneficiaries (weaker sections, like SC/ST, Women, handicapped, agricultural and non-agricultural labours, rural artisans, marginal and non marginal farmers living below poverty line) could not improve accordingly and most of them are still not in a position to meet their needs properly. The reasons are the large size of family, illiteracy, ignorance and lack of spirit to work besides most of them have no future planning and are mingled with present needs. Moreover, the bureaucratic attitude of the concerned officials, misappropriation in utilization of assistance and poor

involvement of the beneficiaries have checked its performance. Thus, the earlier programmes could not attain the desired goal successfully and became a politically motivated programme, hence modification.

Providing rural households access to financial services, particularly credit has been a priority agenda for the central government since Independence. It was considered an effective tool to earn a sustainable living. As a part of this strategy, several subsidy linked credit programmes were initiated. Within this policy context, the development of India's financial sector inevitably resulted in substantial achievements in enhancing access to credit in rural areas. Though the organized banking has largely undermined the role of the moneylender regarding provision of credit, yet it is also realized that the formal banking system is ill suited to the credit needs of the informal sector, even though this sector accounts for the bulk of the total employment generated. So, the rural poor in the unorganized sector have not yet been able to come out of the clutches of money lenders charging usurious interest rates. The rural poor generally need finances for mixed purposes (i.e. a mix of production and consumption needs), which are mutually affected by each other. They are poor, so they cannot meet the contingencies of life on their own. In certain circumstances they have to sell or pledge their productive assets (whatever they have) to meet their needs, in the absence of any outside help. This pushes them into the vicious cycle of debt and impoverishment. The formal credit system generally excludes them for want of a collateral. On the other hand borrowing from an informal source is very convenient, though the terms are very hard. As a result the credit needs of the rural poor are only partially met by formal credit agencies. Presently, the overall share of the organized sector in credit flow to the rural poor is only around 16 percent (Planning Commission, 2002). Hence, a system would have to be put in place, which is flexible and responsive to the financial needs of the poor and is capable of supplying timely and adequate credit. Banking policies and procedures need to be reviewed to enable banks to adopt a more proactive approach to lending to economically viable activities in the informal sector (Planning Commission, 2002). For this generally the services of cooperatives and non-bank financial intermediaries are depended upon for on-lending to finance informal sector activity. Another important mechanism through which banks can meet the credit needs of the informal sector is the self help groups (SHGs), which provide micro credit for informal sector activities.

ESTIMATES OF POVERTY

Year	Rural	Urban	All India
1973 - 1974	56.4	49.0	54.9
1977 - 1978	53.1	45.2	51.3
1983	54.7	40.8	44.5
1987 - 1988	39.1	38.2	38.9
1993 - 1994	37.3	32.4	36.0
1999 - 2000	27.1	23.8	26.1
2007	21.1	15.1	19.3

Source: *Tittham, (Tamil Yojana) January 2005, Vol. 26, No. 5.*

SHGs & MICRO FINANCE : SOME THEORETICAL CONCEPTS

In the year 2005, the SHG bank linkage has assumed great importance as the UN has declared it as a year of micro-credit. The policy of SHG-bank linkage should rapidly convert itself into a micro credit micro enterprises linkage. SHGs are the heart or nerve system of Rural Development and poverty alleviation.

Micro finance through SHGs in India dates back to 1992, when a pilot project linking SHGs to banks was launched. A total of 225 SHGs were linked with banks under this project. A NABARD study (NABARD 2000) showed very positive outcomes in terms of effectiveness of loans reaching the poor and in improving their income levels. The study has also shown that the recovery rates of SHGs are very high (nearly 90 percent) reflecting the impact of peer pressure in ensuring loan recovery. On the other hand, SHGs also act as a collateral for banks to provide micro finance to these groups. The SHGs work through a process of social mobilisation to set up a successful enterprise to earn a sustainable living that helps the beneficiaries to lift themselves above the poverty line. Ideally, any SHG should move through following states :

Initial Phase : Social mobilization and formation of groups.

Second Phase : Mobilisation of savings and internal lending among members of the group on their own, augmented by revolving fund grants from government and linkages with bank and other credit agencies.

Third Phase : Obtaining microfinance

Fourth Phase : Setting up of micro enterprises.

Thus, this is a long process and groups require time to mature as cohesive units.

However, the last stage could be achieved only if the groups have sufficient skills, essential infrastructure and proper marketing linkage. So, the challenge is not only to assist the poor with a small amount of credit, but also to enable them to reach the final stage because ideally a successful poverty alleviation programme is that programme which gradually diminishes its own importance. In case of successful SHG, therefore, this is possible if the SHG reaches a final phase and starts earning thereby lifting its members above the poverty line on a permanent basis.

ROLE & FUNCTIONS OF BRLP IN POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN RURAL AREA

Government of Bihar initiated a project in 2006 on rural livelihood promotion with support from World Bank to empower rural poor and women namely Bihar Rural Livelihood Promotion Project under Bihar Rural Livelihood Promotion Society (BRLPS) is the spearheading agency for the implementation of the project. Its H.Q. is in Vidyut Bhavan, Patna. Now Jeevika has been designed to address rural poverty in Bihar through the collaboration of the poor, the Government of Bihar and the World Bank.

OBJECTIVE

- To improve rural livelihoods and enhance social and economic empowerment of the rural poor.
- By developing organizations of the rural poor and producers to enable them to access & negotiate better services, credit and assets from public and private sector agencies and financial institutions.
- To invest in building capacity of public and private service providers.
- To play a catalytic role in promoting development of microfinance and agribusiness sectors.

CONCEPT OF BIHAR INNOVATION FORUM

Creating an enabling environment for implementing and scaling up innovations for rural livelihood development and service delivery is one of the objectives of the Bihar Rural Livelihood Project. One of the components of the project is also to support innovations by various institutions, entrepreneurs, NGOs, etc. whose main objective is to improve rural livelihoods.



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The main objective of the Bihar Innovations Forum is primarily to showcase and support various innovations that show potential in Bihar for scaling up. It is also envisaged that this forum would be working on the lines of a development market place.

SUGGESTION

The BRLP is the life saving drug to cure BIMARU state of Bihar which is suffering from serious ailments of economic backwardness, women problems, lowest saving rate, lowest rural industrialisation, lack of technical and legal information, lack of social mobilization, slow mobilization, social strife, dirty Politics, Parochial thoughts, narrow populist policies, deteriorating education, vote grabbing endeavors, thoroughly corrupt bureaucracy and crime infested scenario. The BRLP is not shadow or carbon copy of IRDP Programme of Central Government but it is a mega and multi dimensional challenging project. The BRLP is a "Rainbow Project" of Sushasan Government of Bihar. The policy maker of BRLP should consider the Tenth Five Year Plan (2002-2007) advise "inclusion of an identifiable women component plan in the programmes of the respective ministries right from the planning process, and to monitoring and implementation of benefit to women, and the promotion of self help groups". The Approach Paper to the 11th Five Year Plan strategy for gender balancing takes care of the special needs to upliftment of rural downtrodden women, and needed participation of rural women and neglected needy persons in all planning & projects and BRLP should consider the Bangladeshi Nobel Peace Prize Winner's concept of Rural Development.

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POVERTY ERADICATION IN INDIA UNDER ANTI POVERTY PROGRAMMES – SOME OBSERVATIONS

Dr. K. Muthalagu

It is incorrect to say that all the poverty eradication programmes have failed because the growth of the middle class people indicates that economic prosperity has indeed been very impressive in India, but at the same time, the distribution of wealth is not at all even across the country.

In India poverty is mainly a rural problem. More than 65 percent of the country's population lives in rural areas and about 193 million rural people are poor and every three of the four people in India survive on less than US \$ 1 a day live in rural areas. For more than 15 percent of rural poor people, poverty is a chronic condition. Agricultural wage earners, small and marginal farmers and casual workers engaged in non-agricultural activities, constitute the bulk of the rural poor. Such a high

incidence of poverty is a matter of concern in view of the fact that poverty eradication has been one of the major objectives of the development planning process. Initially, India adopted a development strategy which was based on the trickle down concept. Then the government realized the need for direct intervention in favour of the poor, since that development strategy failed to meet the basic needs of millions of the rural poor. Consequently, the government embarked on the preparation and



There is hope for the future

implementation of comprehensive and coherent anti poverty programmes. However there is serious concern in many circles that whether these anti poverty programmes have eradicated the poverty in India since its inception and if not why the current strategies have failed and with this intention the author has prepared this paper to highlight some of the observations regarding effectiveness of these schemes in India.

How is poverty defined in India?

Indian poverty estimates are based on household consumption expenditure. Any person consuming less than 2,400 calories per day in a rural area and less than 2,100 calories per day in an urban area is considered to be below the poverty line. Other aspects of poverty include access to medical care and schooling, indebtedness and insecurity but these do not figure in the official definition of poverty.

According to the report of Government of India Task Force the poverty line was defined as per capital monthly expenditure of Rs. 49.09 in rural areas and Rs. 56.64 in urban areas at 1973-74 prices corresponding to per capita daily calories requirement in rural and urban area. The definition covers expenditure on food and non-food items such as fuel, clothing, housing, health, education and social services that ensure adequacy of calorie consumption.

Causes of Poverty in India

The major causes for poverty are:

1. The Indian caste system and the discrimination against low caste.
2. High level of dependence on primitive methods of agriculture.
3. Rural urban divide.
4. 75% of Indian population depends on agriculture whereas the contribution of agriculture to the

GDP was 22%.

5. While services and industry have grown at double digit figures, agriculture growth rate has dropped from 4.8% to 2%.
6. High population growth rate.
7. High illiteracy (about 35% of adult population).
8. Unemployment and under-employment.

Poverty Rates and its Reduction in India

The proportion of India's population below the poverty line has fluctuated widely in the past but the overall trend has been downward. However, according to NSSO survey report poverty rates and its reduction has been roughly given under three periods of trends in India.

1950 to mid-1970s: Poverty indication shows no discernible trend. In 1951, 47% of India's rural population was below the poverty line. The proportion went up to 64% in 1954-55; it came down to 45% in 1960-61 but in 1977-78, it went up again to 51%.

Mid 1970s to 1990: Poverty declined significantly between the mid-1970s and the end of the 1980s. The decline was more pronounced between 1977-78 and 1986-87, with rural poverty declining from 51% to 39%. It went down further to 34% by 1989-90. Urban poverty went down from 41% in 1977-78 to 34% in 1986-87 and further to 33% in 1989-90.

After 1991: This post-economic reform period evidenced both progress and setbacks. Rural poverty increased from 34% in 1989-90 to 43% in 1992 and then fell to 37% in 1993-94. Urban poverty went up from 33.4% in 1989-90 to 33.7% in 1992 and declined to 31% in 1993-94. Percentage of population in 2004-05 living below poverty line has been presented below. It is inferred from Table 1 that poverty rate in India was 51.3% in 1977-78 and it reduced to 22.15% in 2004-05 with a 56.82 percentage reduction with in 30 years however it is low reduction compared to other countries.

Table 1 : NSSO Reports on Poverty Rates and Poverty Reduction

Year	Round	Poverty Rate (%)	Poverty Reduction (%) (over 5 years)
1977-78	32	51.3	—
1983-84	38	45.65	11.01
1987-88	43	39.09	14.37
1993-94	50	37.27	4.66
1999-00	55	26.09	30.00
2004-05	61	22.15	15.10

Primary data: NSSO, 2004-05 61st Round Survey Report.

Poverty Eradication under Various Programmes in India

The Government of India's poverty eradication programmes can be broadly classified under five categories:

1. Self Employment programmes
2. Wage employment programmes
3. Area development programmes
4. Social security programmes
5. Other programmes

Self-employment Programmes

Self-employment programmes were introduced at the national level in the late 1970s. Initially, the programmes were designed to provide skills, subsidised credit and infrastructure support to small farmers and agricultural labourers so that they could find new sources of income. In the 1980s, the focus of the self-employment programmes was extended to cover target groups such as scheduled castes and tribes, women and rural artisans. The coverage also extended to specific areas such as animal husbandry, forestry and fishery. The largest of these programmes was the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP). According to a mid-term appraisal of the Ninth Plan done by the Planning Commission, the IRDP suffered from several defects such as unviable projects, illiterate and unskilled beneficiaries, and indifferent delivery of credit by banks, overcrowding of lending in certain projects and under emphasis on activities like trading and service, poor targeting and selection of non-poor and the like.

So, in 1999, several self-employment programmes were integrated into the Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY). The key feature of the SGSY is that it does not seek to promote individual economic activities. It seeks to promote self-help groups that are trained in specific skills so they can formulate micro enterprise proposals. Such projects are based on activities that are identified for each block on the basis of local resources, skills and markets. The projects are supported by bank credit and government subsidies. While the SGSY is implemented by district rural development agencies through panchayat samitis, NGOs are expected to play a major role in the success of the programme.

Wage-Employment Programmes

The first major wage-employment programme was introduced in the 1960s to provide employment

to the rural unemployed particularly during the lean agricultural season. Subsequently, several wage-employment programmes were launched by the central and state governments. The largest of these was the Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY), which was redesigned in 1999 as the Jawahar Gram Samridhhi Yojana (JGSY). Other notable schemes are such as the Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS) and the Employment Guarantee Scheme of the Maharashtra Government. According to a mid-term appraisal of the Ninth Plan done by the Planning Commission, the JRY suffered from some of the defects such as inadequate employment provided, limited resources spread, violation of material-labour norms and corruption and poor execution of project by contractors through hired outside labourers at lower wages. In 2001, the JGSY and EAS were merged to form the Sampoorna Grameen Rozgar Yojana (SGRY). The objective of the scheme is to provide additional wage employment with food security in rural areas. Beneficiaries are temporarily employed to build community assets and infrastructure. The cost of the scheme, which includes the distribution of food grain, is shared by the Central and State governments in a ratio of 87.5:12.5

In August 2005, the Indian Parliament passed the National Rural Employment Guarantee (NREG), one of independent India's most ambitious interventions to address rural poverty and empower poor people. The NREG follows a set of legally enforceable employment norms. Its aim is to end food insecurity, empower village communities, and create useful assets in rural areas. It is based on the assumption that every adult has a right to basic employment opportunities at the statutory minimum wage. Under the scheme, one member of every poor rural family is guaranteed 100 days of work at the minimum wage of Rs 60 a day. All rural poor are eligible, not just those designated Below the Poverty Line (BPL). One-third of the beneficiaries must be women. If five or more children accompany their mothers to any site, the implementing authority must appoint a woman to look after them on the site. Panchayats at district, intermediate and village levels will identify and monitor the project, together with a programme officer. Social audits of the work will be available at gram sabhas.

Area Development Programmes

Drought Prone Area Programmes (DPAP), Desert Development Programmes (DDP), Hilly Area Development Programmes and Tribal Area Development Programmes were introduced in the 1970s to prevent environmental degradation and

provide employment to the poor in these regions. The introduction of watershed development programmes strengthened the environment management aspect of these programmes in the mid-'90s. Currently, several central government, state government and non-government watershed development programmes are being implemented. A new Department of Land Resources has been created by merging all area development programmes with the Department of Wasteland Development. The Tenth Plan has a new scheme called the Rashtriya Sam Vikas Yojana (RSVY) started with an outlay of Rs 2,500 crores for 2002-03, and it aims to promote focused developmental programmes for backward areas that would help reduce imbalances, speed up development and help backward areas overcome poverty. The RSVY has four components such as a special plan for Bihar, a special plan for the extremely backward Kalahandi-Bolangir-Koraput (KKBK) region of Orissa, a backward districts initiative and a reforms component.

- Under the special plan for Bihar, additional assistance will be provided for identified thrust areas such as power, irrigation and watershed development to mitigate some of the problems caused by the state's bifurcation.
- Under the special plan for the KKBK region, funds will be provided for concerted action in identified critical areas to provide livelihood support, better health facilities and specific assistance to disadvantaged groups.
- Under the backward districts initiative, the Planning Commission has identified 100 backward districts across the country. State governments are required to prepare plans for the identified districts through district authorities to use existing institutions, non-government organisations.
- Under the reforms component, states are expected to increase tax and non-tax resource mobilisation efforts and to undertake downsizing of staff and administrative expenditure and to take up fiscal reforms to restructure finances.

Social Security Programmes

Social security programmes were launched, at the national level, in the 1980s with an old age pension scheme. Currently, there are four major national social security schemes:

1. National Old Age Pension Scheme (NOAPS), which provides a pension to people above the

age of 65 with no source of income or financial support.

2. National Family Benefit Scheme, which provides Rs 10,000 to families living below the poverty line when their main earning member dies.
3. National Maternity Benefit Scheme, which provides Rs 500 to pregnant women of families living below the poverty line.
4. Rural Group Insurance Scheme, which provides a maximum life insurance of Rs 5,000 covering the main earning members of families living below the poverty line on a group insurance basis; the government pays half the premium of Rs 50-Rs 70.

Other programmes

The largest of the 'other' programmes is the Indira Awaas Yojana (IAY), which provides houses free of cost to below the poverty line scheduled caste and scheduled tribe families living in rural areas. The maximum cost of a house is Rs 22,000; the cost is shared by the central and state governments, on 75:25 bases. However, in any given village/block/district, large number of eligible families has not yet been covered by the IAY. Recently, several other poverty alleviation programmes have been launched including:

1. **Pradhan Mantri Gramodaya Yojana**, which provides additional funds to states so that they can provide basic minimum services such as primary health, primary education and drinking water. Under the Pradhan Mantri Gramodaya Yojana, there are two schemes such as Gramin Awas for rural shelter and the Rural Drinking Water Project for water conservation in DPAP and DDP programme areas.
2. **Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana**, launched in December 2000, to provide road connectivity to 1.6 lakhs remote habitations with a population of over 500 by the end of the Tenth Plan period.
3. **Antyodaya Anna Yojana** launched in December 2001, to provide 25 kg of food grain at highly subsidised rates to 100 million of India's poorest families living below the poverty line.
4. **The Annapurna Scheme** to provide 10 kg of food grain per month free of cost to persons who are eligible for pension under the NOAPS but haven't received any.
5. **Valmiki Ambedkar Awas Yojana (VAMBAY)**

launched in December 2001, facilitates the construction and up-gradation of dwelling units for the slum dwellers, and provides a healthy and enabling urban environment through community toilets under Nirmal Bharat Abhiyan, a component of the Scheme. The Central Government provides a subsidy of 50 per cent, with the balance provided by the State Government.

The Financial & Physical Performance under Poverty Eradication Programmes such as IRDP / SGSY, JRY / JGSY and EAS is given in Table 2.

Observations on the Poverty Eradication

Positive Appraisal

- Under **Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana** scheme, till December 2002, around Rs 3,500 crores was utilised for the scheme on an all-India basis for the benefit of over 3 million swarozgaris. The Centre only contributes 75% of the funds. Further till November 2005, the Centre and States, sharing the costs on 75:25 bases, had allocated Rs.8, 067 crores, of which Rs. 6,980 crores had been utilized to assist 62.75 lakhs self-employed.
- Under **Indira Awaas Yojana (IAY)** scheme up to January 30, 2006, about 138 lakhs houses

had been constructed and upgraded with an expenditure of Rs.25, 208 crores. Since the launch of the programme in 1985-86, till February 2003, over 9 million houses were constructed at a cost of over Rs 16,000 crores.

- Under **Sampoorna Grameen Rozgar Yojana (SGRY)** scheme up to November 2005-06, the number of person days generated under SGRY was 48.75 crores, while the Centre's contributions in terms of the cash and food grains components up to January, 2006 were Rs. 4651 crores and 35 lakhs tonnes, respectively. Under the special component, about 11.65 lakhs tonnes of food grains have been released to the 11 calamity-hit States in the current year.
- Under **National Food for Work Programme (NFFWP)** scheme in 2005-06, the allocation of Rs 4,500 crore and 15 lakh tonnes of food grains had been released up to January 27, 2006. About 17.03 lakh person days were generated up to December 2005.
- Under **DPAP, DDP and IWDP** schemes in 2005-06 up to October, 3000 new projects covering 15 lakh ha. 2000 new projects covering 10 lakh ha, and 340 new projects covering 16 lakh ha, have been sanctioned under DPAP, DDP and IWDP, respectively.

Table 2 : Financial & Physical Performance under Poverty Alleviation Programmes IRDP / SGSY, JRY / JGSY and EAS

Year	IRDP/SGSY			JRY/JGSY/EAS		
	Total Allocation (Centre & State)	Total expenditure	Lakhs Families Swarozgaris	Total Allocation (Centre & State)	Total expenditure	Employment Lakhs in Man Days
1992-93	662.22	693.88	20.69	3169.05	2709.59	7821.02
1993-94	1093.43	956.65	25.39	4059.42	4062.46	10753.14
1994-95	1098.22	1008.31	22.15	4376.92	5503.78	12246.63
1995-96	1097.21	1077.16	20.89	4848.70	6187.52	12423.52
1996-97	1097.21	1131.68	19.24	2236.79	4324.39	8036.34
1997-98	1133.51	1109.54	17.07	4959.69	5344.35	8673.63
1998-99	1456.28	1162.28	16.77	5082.18	5407.66	8045.77
1999-00	1472.34	959.86	9.34	3634.07	4215.06	5469.25
2000-01	1332.50	1116.27	10.30	4275.23	3790.34	4867.09
2001-02	774.50	555.15	6.25	4223.93	1229.99	1527.06
Total	11217.42	9583.85	165.28	41569.09	42775.14	79863.5

Source: Report of Ministry of Rural Development, "Poverty Alleviation in Rural India- Strategy and Programmes" Ninth Five Year Plan 2002-07, Vol.No.1 Pp.290.315

• **Under Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY)** scheme in 2003-04, the central allocation of Rs. 94.50 crore plus Rs. 10.50 crore for North-Eastern Region including Sikkim was fully utilized and even in 2005-06, out of an allocation of Rs. 160.00 crore, Rs. 84.52 crore had been utilized until November 30, 2005.

• **Under Valmiki Ambedkar Awas Yojana (VAMBAY)** up-to December, 31 2005, Rs. 866.16 crore had been released as Central subsidy for the construction/up-gradation of 4, 11,478 dwelling units and 64,247 toilet seats under these schemes and then up to December 31, 2005, an amount of Rs.96.4 crore had been released covering 60,335 dwelling units and 381 toilet seats.

• **Under Pradhan Mantri Gramodaya Yojana**, in 2002-03, Rs 2,800 crores was provided for this scheme to provide basic minimum services such as primary health, primary education and drinking water.

• **Under Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana** till December 2002, road connectivity was provided to over 12,000 habitations at the cost of around Rs 3,300 crores.

• **Under Antyodaya Anna Yojana** in 2002, around 24 lakhs tonnes of food grain were provided by the Central Government to provide 25 kg of food grain at highly subsidised rates to poorest families living below the poverty line.

From the above it is observed that there are a lot of achievements in rural and urban area over the period from these anti poverty programmes in India.

Negative Appraisal

Since the early 1950s, government has initiated, sustained and refined various planning schemes to help the poor attain self sufficiency in food production and increased standard of living conditions. Even though reduction of poverty from 36% (1993-94) to 26% (1999-2000) to 22% (2004-05), has been shown in official report of Government of India, but the picture is not so clear because non-pecuniary dimensions such as health, education, crime and access to infrastructure has not improved India.

Misuse of Assistance from International Agency: Developing countries like India depend more on outside assistance to expand existing programmes that are run mostly by governments. But at the same time there is very little evidence that foreign assistance has made much difference in overcoming the poverty trap in our country. Because the financial assistance received from international

agencies are not able to utilise it effectively due to shortage of ideas, enthusiasm and expectations at the planning level in the good execution of these schemes in India.

Misuse of Domestic Funds and Bad Governance: In rural India, government spends significant funds on subsidies for electricity, fertilizer, fuels, etc., food rations, price supports, land allocation / distribution, job training and financial assistance for initiatives in agriculture and small business. But who has benefited from all these programmes and assistance? The beneficiaries are usually corrupt officials who manage and distribute funds and landlords and powerbrokers who directly or indirectly extract benefits for themselves. The poor do not gain much directly from any government programmes due to bribery, political influence in the allocation of fund, diffused focus and priorities, poor execution, shortage of rural infrastructure and social inequality. Similarly corruption and misallocation of development funds are ultimately the result of failed governance.

Limited Role of Govt and NGOs: There are several participants in the developmental arena such as national and international agencies, private companies and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) which have taken up projects to improve the quality of education and healthcare, focusing on specific critical areas such as HIV/AIDS, illiteracy and women's empowerment. However we are not able to eradicate poverty completely and improve life conditions of poor people in India due to limited role of Govt and NGO in the execution of anti poverty programmes.

Conclusion

Eradication of poverty in India is a long-term goal. It is incorrect to say that all the poverty eradication programmes have failed because the growth of the middle class people indicates that economic prosperity has indeed been very impressive in India, but at the same time, the distribution of wealth is not at all even across the country. Poverty eradication is expected to make better progress in the coming years than in the past due to the increasing stress on education, reservation of seats in government jobs and the increasing empowerment of women have contributed much to the eradication of poverty in India. According to the statement of Nicholas Stern, vice-president of the World Bank that increasing globalization and investment opportunities contribute significantly to the reduction of poverty in India which would accelerate rise in per-capita income and economic development of our people.

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Six key risks slowing down development: report

Special Correspondent

NEW DELHI: India is at an inflection point — the prospect of sustaining 8-10 per cent growth is achievable, but a number of basic challenges are acting as a handbrake on development and need to be addressed, a report released here on Saturday by the World Economic Forum's 'Global Risk Network' and the Confederation of Indian Industry (CII) has said.

The report has pointed out that while it is well known that the existing infrastructure in India is stretched to its limits and that massive investments are required, there is also an urgent need for the government, the private sector and civil society to collaborate on governance reforms to eliminate corruption and ensure equity in the provision of basic services such as education, water and sanitation.

It has also found that while much can be gained by removing constraints inherent in inefficient government bureaucracies, complex tax regulations and labour market rigidities, the country's decision-makers cannot assume that tomorrow's growth story will read like today's. For, although the economic fundamentals are in place, it is the political dynamics and scope of structural reforms that are more likely to shape the next chapter. These are among the findings of the report titled 'India@Risk 2007'.

Published to coincide with

the 'India Economic Summit' starting here on Sunday, the report features the latest insights into trends, potential consequences and mitigation relevant to six key risks facing India. These are:

1) Economic impact of demographics — India is facing a demographic dividend. What must be done to ensure it does not turn into a demographic liability? Can the 'inequality trap' be overcome and inclusive growth achieved?

2) Loss of fresh water (quantity and quality) — How best can India cope with increasing freshwater insecurity?

3) Economic shocks and oil peaks — How vulnerable is India to external economic turbulence? What exogenous crises would risk derailing India's growth prospects (for instance, an oil price shock)?

4) Geopolitical risks: Globalisation versus protectionism — What happens if there is a backlash or retrenchment from globalisation? With the explosion of expectations, can India keep up with its own aspirations?

5) Climate change: The environment and challenges to India's growth — Can India balance the complex trade-offs between the environment and growth? What are the risks and opportunities for India?

6) Societal risks: Infectious diseases — What must be done to combat the spread of high-mortality disease and pandemics? What if India fails?

According to CII Director-General Shamsher S. Mehta, "Along with national security, the three pillars of security — human, economic and physical — need to be raised to bring the economy to a position where the challenges can be met. The risks were identified because of their inter-connectedness, which magnifies their impact," he said.

In preparing the report, more than 40 experts from business, academia, non-government organisations and policy-making were asked to consider the drivers of the recent period of unprecedented growth in India and the opportunities that exist, as well as the threats to the country's continuing progress.

Three economic threats

Gareth Shepherd, who oversees economic and financial risks in WEF's Global Risk Network, pointed out that while sustained 8-10 per cent growth for India is possible, "it is not a given." "In the short term, three economic threats loom large: A rising rupee, an oil price shock and a collapse of asset prices [especially property or shares], triggered by a global re-appreciation of risk. In the medium and long term, risk mitigation should focus on building increased resilience via continued investment in basic infrastructure and education, as well as on inclusive growth, in order to reap the demographic dividend of a young, aspiring and growing populace," he said.

SWARNJAYANTI GRAM SWAROZGAR YOJANA (SGSY) – TOOL FOR POVERTY ERADICATION

M. Selvakumar & R. Sundar

The objective of the SGSY is to bring the assisted poor families (Swarozgaris) above the Poverty Line by providing them income-generating assets through a mix of Bank Credit and Governmental Subsidy. Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana aims at establishing a large number of micro-enterprises in the rural areas, building upon the potential of the rural poor.

Introduction

Anti-poverty Programmes have been a dominant

feature of government initiatives in the rural areas. The programmes have been reviewed and strengthened in the successive years in order to



Government has several schemes to help the poor

sharpen their focus on reduction of Rural Poverty. The results achieved, in the meanwhile, are worth noting. In percentage terms, rural poverty has reduced from 56.44% of the country's population in 1973-74 to 37.27% in 1993-94. Some States have been more successful in reducing their poverty (rural) during this period. These States are Andhra Pradesh, Goa, Gujarat, Karnataka, Kerala, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, and West Bengal. However, the cause of concern is that the estimated number of the rural poor is still about 244 million which has led to further review and restructuring of the anti-poverty Programmes. The Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) is the result of such latest review and restructuring of the programmes.

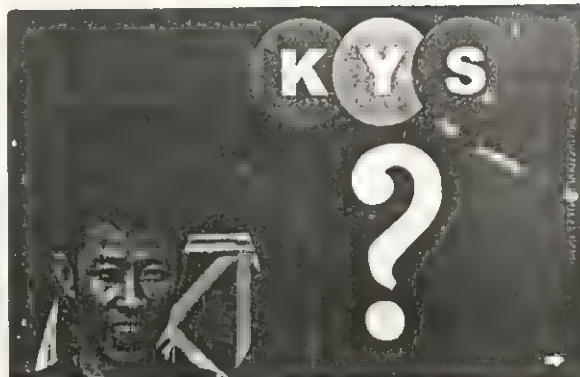
Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana

The Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) has been launched with effect from April 1, 1999 as a new Self-employment Programme. With the coming into effect of the SGSY, the earlier programmes of Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP), Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM), Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA), the Ganga Kalyan Yojana (GKY) as well as the Million Wells Scheme (MWS) are no longer in operation.

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The SGSY is different from earlier programmes, in terms of the strategy envisaged for its implementation, and has been conceived as a holistic programme of self-employment covering all aspects of self-employment, viz., organization of the rural poor in to Self-Help Groups and their capacity building, training, planning of activity clusters, infrastructure build-up and technology and marketing support.

Below the Poverty Line families in rural areas constitute the target group of the SGSY. Within the target group, special safeguards have been provided to vulnerable sections, by way of reserving 50%



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benefits for SCs/STs, 40% for women and 3% for disabled persons.

Assistance under the SGSY to individual Swarozgaris or Self-Help-Groups, is given in the form of subsidy by the Government and credit by the Banks. Subsidy under the SGSY to individuals is uniform at 30% of the Project Cost subject to a maximum of Rs. 7500. In respect of SCs/STs, the subsidy is 50% of the Project Cost, subject to a maximum of Rs. 10,000. For groups of Swarozgaris, the subsidy is 50% of the cost of the Scheme, subject to a ceiling of Rs. 1.25 lakh. There is no monetary limit on subsidy for Irrigation Projects; subsidy is back ended.

The Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) is financed on 75:25 cost sharing basis between the Centre and the States. The SGSY is being implemented by the District Rural Development Agencies (DRDAs), with the active involvement of Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs), the Banks, the Line Departments and the Non-Government Organisations (NGOs).

Activity Clusters - Planning and Selection

There are two key aspects of the SGSY, namely, Activity Clusters and the Group Approach. Each Block has to concentrate on 4-5 Key Activities based on local resources, occupational skills of the people and availability of markets so that the Swarozgaris can draw sustainable incomes from their investments. Selection of these activities has to be done with the approval of the Panchayat Samitis at the Block level and District Rural Development Agency/Zilla Parishad at the District level. These Key Activities should preferably be taken up in clusters so that the backward and forward linkages can be effectively established. The SGSY also focuses on organisation of the poor at grassroots level through a process of

social mobilisation for poverty eradication. Social mobilisation enables the poor build their own organisations {Self-Help-Groups (SHGs)} in which, they participate fully and directly and take decisions on all issues that will help them in coming above the Poverty Line. A SHG may consist of 10-20 persons belonging to families below the Poverty Line and a person should not be a member of more than one group. In the case of minor irrigation schemes and in the case of disabled persons, this number may be a minimum of five (5).

Physical Progress of SGSY

Between 1999 and March 31, 2006, about 19 lakh SHGs have been organized under SGSY. Of these, 10 lakh SHGs have passed grade-I and 6.22 lakh grade-II and 3.09 lakh SHGs have taken up economic activity. The percentage of SHGs taking up economic activity, out of SHGs that have passed grade-II, is around 50 per cent in 2005-06. Similarly, the number of SHG swarozgaris assisted has also increased from 3.47 lakh to 5.87 lakh during this period. Of course, the number of individual swarozgaris assisted has declined from 5.9 lakh to 2.67 lakh during the same period. The percentage of SC/ST community members assisted under the programme has increased from 44 per cent to 55 per cent, the percentage of women from 44.6% to 58% and the percentage of disabled from 0.91 per cent to 24.91 per cent. Table I shows the detailed physical progress of SGSY since inception.

Financial Progress of SGSY

Between 1999 and March 2006, an amount of Rs. 8223.20 crore were allocated for this programme, out of which Rs.7494.75 crore (91%) were utilized. The percentage of utilization to the funds available has increased from 49% during 1999-2000 to 89% in 2005-06. Fund utilization towards training and skill development too has increased from 3% to 3.64% during this period. With regard to the credit mobilized, Rs.1056 crore was provided to this programme in 1999-2000, which has gone up to Rs. 1755.27 crores by March 2006. The per cent of credit support has increased from 32.96 in 1999-2000 to 61 in 2003-04 and declined to 16.84 in 2005-06. In tune with the growing emphasis on group approach, the investment support towards the groups has been making steady progress. This is seen in the ratio of investment on SHGs vs. individuals which has almost gone up by seven times from 0.24 to 1.84 during this period. Similarly, the per capita investment under this programme has increased from Rs.17, 000 to Rs. 25,000. (Table II)

Monitoring of SGSY

A comprehensive system of monitoring has been adopted under the SGSY. The programme is monitored from the Central level down to the grass-roots level. At the Central level, the Central Level Co-ordination Committee (CLCC) monitors and reviews the implementation of the Programme and lays down Policy Guidelines for all aspects related to credit linkages for the SGSY. The Performance Review Committee of the Department of Rural Development also reviews the implementation of the SGSY. At the State level, a State Level Coordination Committee (SLCC) monitors the Programme. In addition, the progress under the SGSY is monitored periodically through Reports and Returns submitted by DRDAs/States. Detailed monitoring formats for reporting progress of the Programme have been circulated to all the DRDAs. Implementation of the Programme is monitored and reviewed through the Project Directors' Workshops and periodic Meetings with the State Secretaries. At the Block/DRDA level, monitoring is done through field visits and physical verification of assets. Efforts are underway to bring all the DRDAs of the country within online networks for smooth flow of information from the Districts to the Centre and the States/UTs.

Conclusion

Prompt recovery of loans will be an important aspect of SGSY, not only to ensure discipline but more importantly as it reflects the success of the self-employment programme. All concerned must therefore ensure that the recovery is hundred per cent. To ensure this, the government should take some measure for hundred per cent loan recovery. Moreover a very good monitoring system is adopted for SGSY, that system should be reviewed once in suitable period intervals.

SGSY is the best tool to eradicate poverty in rural India. The Government support and assistance is essential for the success of programme like SGSY. The physical and financial progress of SGSY shows its worst result in recent years. Therefore, the government should come forward to allot huge amount of fund to this programme. The role of NGOs is important for the success of SGSY because they are the field workers of this programme. Hence NGOs should serve SGSY Swarozgarise with an open heart.

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What could put India@Risk?

The Hindu

BUSINESS LINE

18 DEC 2007

The palatial surroundings of the Taj Palace hotel in New Delhi seemed an unlikely setting to discuss the potentially debilitating risks that could hamper India's rapid growth, far removed as it were from that bleak scenario. 'India@Risk: Six global challenges ahead', was one of the subjects of a weighty discussion at the India Economic Summit of the World Economic Forum (WEF) held recently in New Delhi. But as the panellists on the discussion, among them Ms Madeleine Albright, former US Secretary of State, and Mr Robert Blackwill, former US Ambassador to India, pointed out, the risks are quite real and India had better be alive to them.

THE KEY RISKS

A report prepared by the WEF's Global Risk Network and the CII gave the latest insights into trends, potential consequences and mitigation relevant to six key risks India faces. The risks outlined were:

Economic impact of demographics: India is facing a demographic dividend, what must be done to ensure it does not turn into a demographic liability?

Loss of freshwater (quantity and quality): How best can India cope with increasing freshwater insecurity?

Economic shocks and oil peaks: How vulnerable is India to external economic turbulence?

Geopolitical risks: Globalisation vs protectionism — what happens if there is a backlash or retrenchment from globalisation? With the explosion of expectations, can India keep up with its own aspirations?

Climate change: Environmental challenges to India's growth — can India balance the trade-offs between the environment and growth?

Societal risk: Infectious diseases — what must be done to combat the spread of high-mortality disease and pandemics? What if India fails?

In preparing the report on risks, more than 40 experts from business, academia, NGOs and policy-making were asked to consider the drivers of the recent period of unprecedented growth and the opportunities that exist, as well as the threats to continuing progress.

WAR, OIL AND TERRORISM

"It is clear that India is at an infection point," points out the report, "the prospect of sustaining 8-10 per cent growth is achievable but a number of basic challenges are acting as a handbrake on development and need to be addressed." Mr Blackwill pulled no punches when he conjured up two apocalyptic alternatives: a US attack on Iran or living with a nuclear-armed Iran. As he said, "Iran has clearly embarked on an effort to acquire

nuclear weapons." So, within the next two years, the US president will face a "binary decision" to attack or acquiesce, both with disastrous consequences, emphasised Mr Blackwill.

A US attack, he said, would lead to a long war, alienate the Islamic world and increase terrorism globally. The other alternative is if Iran acquires nuclear weapons, "it will change the world" and other Sunni states will acquire weapons and India will be in the firing line. At the least, this has the potential to create serious negative effects on the Indian economy.

The other thing that could potentially derail the India growth story, said Mr Blackwill, is the price of oil. An ADB study indicates that every \$10 per barrel rise in the price of oil held for a year could cut India's annual growth back by one per cent. So, if the price of oil reached \$150, India would stare at a three or four per cent rate of growth. Describing it as a possible "disaster", Mr Blackwill said this is a real possibility if the US attacked Iran. "I am not predicting a war, but we are going down that river at about four knots," he added.

The other high-profile panellist, Ms Madeleine Albright, too, was equally candid when she pointed out the risks to India were from terrorism, nuclear proliferation and the gap between the rich and the poor.

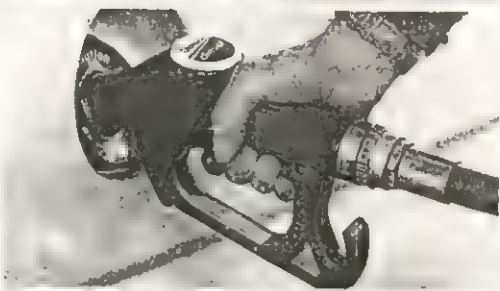
She also questioned the relevance of world bodies created in another age, such as the UN, the WTO and the Doha Round, saying: "Given the interdependence of the world, the international institutions we've grown up with don't work." She said that the world should look at ways of bringing different players to the global decision-making table, particularly businesses and NGOs, to reflect the changing power structures in the world. "Coca-Cola probably has more power than Uruguay," she exclaimed.

DEMOGRAPHIC DIVIDEND?

The demographic challenge was dealt with at length by the panellists. Over half of India's population is under 25 years of age and within a decade the working population could peak at 800 million people, posing huge challenges in terms of creating employment and training workers.

As Mr Shamsheer Mehta, Director-General, CII, pointed out, "The rest of the world is ageing; India is in a position to provide the world's workforce." However, he conceded that the education system has come unstuck and vocational training is seen as a failure. India's demographic surge should be converted into an opportunity, he said, cautioning that "these ten years are never going to come again."

Mr Chaly Mah, CEO, Asia Pacific, Deloitte, Singapore, busted an-



other myth about the demographic dividend. Education, he said, is the core of the issue. "If 71 million people are going to join the workforce in the next five years, the question is not if there will be enough jobs but are these 71 million employable?" Deloitte's costs, he said, in recruiting and training Indian employees have escalated. It's a myth that China and India have a lot of people available for hire, because "when talking about skilled professionals, there is a massive shortage."

GOING IN-DEPTH

The India@Risk report deals in depth with each of the potential threats to the Indian economy. Most of the statistics and the reality of it all are known but, collated together, it makes for stark reading.

Loss of freshwater: India has 18

per cent of the world's population but only 4 per cent of its water resources. The National Commission on Water predicts that by 2050, demand for water will exceed all available sources of supply. It goes on to say that social, political and economic tensions over access to quality water resources may cause short- and long-term damage to the business and investment climate in India.

Economic shocks and oil peaks: The report points out that the mood is upbeat; the consensus is for a repeat of a "Goldilocks year of growth in 2008" (i.e., 8 per cent plus). India is far better placed to withstand an economic downturn than it was in the 1990s. However, while sustained 8-10 per cent growth for India is possible, it is not a given, as three ugly bears are threatening the Goldilocks scenario: a rising rupee, an oil price

shock and an asset price collapse (either local or global).

Globalisation vs protectionism: The report says there are divergent views on this. Some experts see a reversal of globalisation as a key risk, while others posit that India is well-shielded by virtue of its low share of world trade, huge international diaspora and success in becoming an ICT hub. Others believe that inequalities are beginning to diminish, while yet others say they are growing. The mismatch of interests and/or negative perceptions could lead to an endogenous backlash against globalisation, as well as social and political tensions.

Climate change: The trend is that India has become a major global player in carbon emissions — it is now number four in the world in its overall carbon dioxide emissions, behind China, the US and the EU. India's emissions per capita increased by 50 per cent in the last 15 years, says the report.

Trends in India's climate change risk depend on global drivers: global carbon emissions and deforestation, both are systemic and entrenched. The mean surface temperature in India has increased broadly in line with the global trend, while in 2007, the worst flooding in western India in over a century killed over 1,200 people with millions displaced. The risk is that the indirect impact of global climate change could have dramatic effects on demand and investment patterns as well as interrupting business operations and supply chains.

Infectious diseases: The report points out that HIV/AIDS and TB are highly connected and mutually reinforce each other: the high prevalence of both threatens the Indian society and economy by reducing the workforce, diminishing productivity and cutting household incomes. Diseases such as malaria are developing new drug-resistant strains. And other chronic diseases such as diabetes, cancer and heart diseases too are emerging as debilitating factors.

The report has systematically catalogued each risk, the important trends, impact, and the risk mitigation by the government with examples of affirmative action.

Terrorism: Lastly, the emerging risk for India is the emergence of organised terrorism. In recent times India has faced the worst terrorist attacks on its soil since 2004, second only to Iraq in terms of lives lost. Certainly, the risks outlined in this report provide food for thought, and action, as India hurtles on.

A report presented at the recent India Economic Summit of the World Economic Forum provides insights into the six key risks that could be a hurdle to the India growth story.

Child labour falls by 49 per cent

Special Correspondent

HYDERABAD: The latest economic census on the entrepreneurial units located in the State, mainly in the unorganised sector, has revealed a 49 per cent decrease in child labour and 85 per cent rise in employment of women, compared to the last census (1998).

Disclosing the details of the fifth census conducted with 2005 as reference year, Director, Directorate of Economic and Statistics, Saroja Rama Rao said here on Friday that the child labour figures of the fourth census was 5.11 lakh, which declined sharply to 2.61 lakh now. The laws and rules framed by the Govern-

- Economic census reveals 85 per cent rise in employment of women

- Number of educational institutions is 1.28 lakh, with a work force of 7.68 lakh

ment had led to the decrease in child labour mainly in urban areas.

The number of enterprises engaged in agricultural and non-agricultural economic activities went up to 39.79 lakh, providing employment to 1.12 crore persons, as against 29.03 lakh enterprises and 75.12 lakh people during the previous census. Of the 1.12 crore employed, 19.88 lakh were engaged in agriculture activity and 92.14 lakh in

non-agriculture activity. A majority of those employed were in rural areas -- 68.42 lakh persons (61.08 per cent) as against 43.59 lakh persons (38.91 per cent) in urban areas.

Of the total enterprises, 26.44 lakh (66.15 per cent) were Own Account Enterprises and 13.53 lakh (33.85 per cent) establishments. Of the total enterprises, 28.48 lakh units were located in rural areas and 11.49 lakh in ur-

ban places. Similarly, a majority of those employed were in rural areas (61.08 per cent), as against 43.59 lakh persons (38.92 per cent) in urban areas.

Retail trade constituted the major group activity in non-agricultural enterprises (37.71 per cent), followed by manufacturing (24.01 per cent). The number of educational institutions was 1.28 lakh with a work force of 7.68 lakh. About 21.10 lakh enterprises were owned by SC, ST and OBC persons in the State.

Dr. Rao said there was a 10 to 12 per cent growth in the unorganised which contributed four per cent of the GSDP, which was Rs.9,170 crore in 2006-07.

Doing their bit for the development of rural India

Pradan, an NGO, helps young people to use their skills for the benefit of rural poor

Bindu Shajan Perappadan

NEW DELHI: Opting for a real life re-run of Shah Rukh Khan's Bollywood film 'Swadesh', Generation Y is taking a break from its "dollar-fuelled lifestyle" to do its bit for India's rural development.

Not waiting for politicians, activists or even non-resident Indians to come to the aid of the country's rural poor, professionals and students are increasingly heading towards "helping the real India keep

pace with development."

Helping them do their bit for rural India is a non-government organisation, Pradan, which has taken on board young people with varied educational backgrounds and motivated them to use their knowledge and skills for the benefit of the rural poor.

"Each year we get youths from across the country and for Delhi recruitment camps are organised at Delhi School of Economics, Delhi University's Sociology Department and Lady

Irwin College. We have got candidates also from Jawaharlal Nehru University," says Sujata Nath, an executive in the Human Resource Unit of Pradan.

Cashing in on the trend among the youngsters "to do something meaningful and make development a holistic process," she said, Pradan had been acting as a medium to provide these youth a 12-month-long field-based apprenticeship, which prepared young people for working in villages.

The group presently has over

200 Pradan professionals spread out in small field-based teams across 2,000 villages in remote and poor pockets of Bihar, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan and West Bengal, pursuing a full-time career in rural development.

Exposure to problems

The programme gives its participants exposure to the problems and potential of working among the disadvantaged.

While young people from West

Bengal, Bihar and Orissa top the list of youngsters opting to work for rural India, those from the metros too are catching up.

"The apprenticeship programme provides an opportunity to assess the pluses and minuses of a life in grassroots work. It also gives time to reflect upon alternative career choices, and to experience the living conditions and broad content and pace of work in villages," said a member of Pradan. Said Madhu Khetan, a Delhi University commerce

graduate and a pass-out from IIM-Lucknow who has been associated with Pradan for over a decade now: "After working in the corporate sector for two years I realised that my work was not meaningful and that was when I decided to switch over and contribute towards ensuring that development in India was holistic. This is something I would strongly recommend to all youngsters. The groups gives you the chance to contribute towards making India really shine."

INDIRA GANDHI NATIONAL OLD AGE PENSION SCHEME FORMALLY LAUNCHED

The Indira Gandhi National Old Age Pension Scheme (IGNOAPS) named after the late Prime Minister Smt. Indira Gandhi on to all those senior citizens who are 65 years of age or above and living below the poverty line (BPL) was formally launched November 19, by the Prime Minister Dr. Manmohan Singh in a function held at G.M.C Balayogi Auditorium in the Parliament Library Complex. A large number of senior citizens had come from different parts of the country to attend the launching ceremony.

Welcoming the Prime Minister The Union Rural Development Minister Dr. Raghuvansh Prasad Singh termed the IGNOAPS as a broad based scheme and urged for a reduction in the present age of 65 years to 60 years and extend it to all needed persons from the BPL families including the widows, destitutes and physically challenged persons of that age group. Referring to the various schemes of the Rural Development Ministry like the NREGA, SGSY, TSC and the Bharat Nirman the minister expressed the hope that the new scheme will cater all rural poor.

Speaking on the occasion the Finance Minister P. Chidambaram said the government wants to double the number of present 87 lakh beneficiaries under this scheme and has asked the states to respond positively. So far 11 states have responded positively towards matching the Central Aid given under this head. States will have to provide Rs.3772 crore as their share for it.

Shri Chidambaram also asked the Rural Development Ministry to instruct the states for having a bank account for all the beneficiaries by July 2008 so as to send the pension money directly to the beneficiaries. He expressed the hope that the programme will go unhindered, without leakage and uninterrupted.

Speaking on the occasion the Prime Minister Dr. Manmohan Singh said by providing some sense of security to our vulnerable elderly citizens in 1995 and keeping the rise of living cost in mind revised the assistance being provided by the Central Government from Rs.75 to Rs.200 per month. The State Governments have been asked to match this raise. He complimented those states which have responded positively. Dr. Singh termed the new scheme as a demand driven social security programme not restricted by budget allocations. He hoped that the new criteria will almost double the coverage from about 87 lakhs now to almost 1.6 crores. Calling for the proper dissemination of information and greater awareness regarding the scheme and the entitlement Dr. Singh asked the states to own this scheme as their own and increase their contribution to the benefits and ensure that no one is left out. He said there is merit in including widows and physically challenged persons in the ambit of social assistance. The old age pension scheme needs to be further extended to cover all those above 60 years. We hope to do this in future, he added.

The Prime Minister also gave away the pension papers to one beneficiary from 24 States and Union Territories as symbolic gesture.

National Old Age Pension Scheme was introduced as a public response to the deprivation, and insecurities faced by the aged. Firstly, adults in poor households themselves face insecurity of work and income in their quest to lead lives of security and some dignity. Secondly, in India the aged are generally dependent on their children for support. The presence of the aged in poor families adds to the financial burden and further deprivation of the family as a whole. The insecurity of the household is further exacerbated by general poverty and greater morbidity among the aged. Thirdly, the absence of adequate public health care facilities, and the increasing cost of private healthcare facilities for the aged can throw the household into a major crisis. As the demographic transition picks up in India, the share of the aged is likely to increase and so will the insecurities of the aged. The benefit of the National Old Age Pension Scheme has been widely accepted.

(Source: PIB)

Prime Minister's New 15 Point Programme for the Welfare of Minorities


Government of India offers free coaching to students and candidates belonging to minority communities in approved coaching institutes

Are you a student belonging to any of the minority communities notified under section 2 (c) of the National Commission for Minorities Act, 1992 viz, Muslim, Christian, Sikh, Buddhist or Parsi?

Are you looking for coaching for appearing in the -

- (i) Civil Services Examinations such as IAS, IPS, IFS etc. or PCS Exam.
 - (ii) Any competitive examination for any other government job in Group B and C services?
 - (iii) Recruitment of personnel in police and other security forces and equivalent posts in railways?
 - (iv) Entrance examination for admission into technical or professional courses such as engineering, law, medical, management, information technology etc.?
 - (v) Language/appraisal examination for seeking admission in foreign universities?
 - (vi) Jobs in the private sector such as airlines, shipping, information technology (IT), business process outsourcing (BPO) and other IT enabled services, hospitality, tours and travels, maritime, food processing, retail, sales & marketing, bio-technology etc.?
- If so, the Ministry of Minority Affairs, Govt. of India provides financial assistance to coaching institutes, for coaching you, upto a maximum of Rs.20,000 per student. Stipend of Rs.1,500 and Rs.750 per month is also provided to cutstation and local candidates respectively in addition to the coaching fees.
 - This scheme is implemented by the Ministry of Minority Affairs through the coaching institutes. The coaching institutes are required to submit their proposal for financial assistance for any of the above coaching programme, through the State Government/UT administration.
 - Contact the Department of Minority Affairs or the department dealing with minority welfare in your State/Union Territory or to the State/UT where you want to avail this benefit.
 - Watch out for the advertisement published by the coaching institutes selected for; financial assistance by the Ministry of Minority Affairs, Government of India, inviting applications from students for free coaching under the scheme.
 - Details of scheme are available on the website www.minorityaffairs.gov.in.
 - For queries, email to mmma.coaching@nic.in
Coaching-mma@nic.in

 Prime Minister's
New 15 point Programme

 Ministry of Minority Affairs
Government of India

Come join the movement for Minority Welfare

9-12-07.D

Regional Dimension of Growth and Employment

K V RAMASWAMY

Regional inequality has emerged as a key issue in recent discussions of development policy. States within India differ greatly in terms of economic growth and employment potential. This paper examines some aspects of this regional employment growth in India during 1983 to 2004-05. The results confirm widening interstate disparities in income in the first quinquennium of the 21st century, a continuation of the trend of the 1990s. Urban employment occurs strongly in initially urbanised states. All states are found to be diversifying, but at a slower pace in low income states. A geographic concentration of skilled labour is observed in financial and business services.

The regional disparities (interstate) in economic well-being are an unmistakable feature of economic growth and change in India. In the years prior to independence,

a pattern of 'agglomerated' growth emerged, with islands of concentrated growth but having very weak dispersal effects... As late as 1948, the presidency states (Bombay, Madras and Calcutta) accounted for 76.7 per cent of the total industrial workers and 77 per cent of industrial production... the share of mineral rich states of Bihar, Orissa and Madhya Pradesh was 9.6 per cent (industrial production)... The southern region around Madras and Bombay, and especially what later became the state of Gujarat, was better placed and had a better start in terms of agriculture and industry [Krishna Bharadwaj 1982: 609].

Later studies of regional disparities during the period of economic planning in India observed that the impulses of growth are more widely dispersed than before but confirmed the persistence of wide disparities in development levels [Srivastava 1994 among others]. Whether these development disparities have tended to accentuate or diminish in recent years of reforms, trade liberalisation and grater integration with the global economy is an important question with social and political economy implications.

The issue of regional disparities in employment in recent years of openness is important simply because labour markets are the key avenue through which international trade and investment openness affects the domestic economy. The problem of regional income inequalities has attracted much attention in recent years [Sachs et al 2002; Ahluwalia 2001; Shetty 2003; Bhattacharya and Sakthivel 2004a; Bagchi and Kurian 2005 among others]. Most of these have focused on the disparities in per capita incomes and report a tendency for divergence. However, studies of interstate disparities in employment opportunities or labour market outcomes are very few and deserve equal attention. Among them, studies by Bhattacharya and Sakthivel (2004b) and Ahsan and Pages (2006) constitute the recent key studies with their detailed analysis of interstate differences in employment outcomes. The time period covered in these two studies from 1983 to 1999-2000 corresponding to the then availability of national sample survey (NSS) employment and unemployment data. Other studies have focused on the impact of labour regulations and trade liberalisation on manufacturing employment and labour demand [Besley and Burgess 2004; Hasan, Mitra and Ramaswamy 2007]. These two econometric studies mainly utilise state level data on manufacturing industries available in the annual survey of industries (ASI).

In this paper, I investigate the growth and structure of employment in 14 major states of India during 1983 and 2004-05. This will help maintain comparability with two important recent studies of regional income disparities, namely, Ahluwalia (2001) and Sachs et al (2002). Sachs et al (2002) have carried out both the sigma and beta tests of convergence for the 14 major states

This paper is based on a study done for the Institute of South Asian Studies, National University of Singapore, Singapore. I am grateful to an anonymous referee for helpful comments on an earlier draft of this paper. The usual disclaimer applies.

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using per capita gross state domestic product (GSDP) data for the period 1980 to 1998. They found that 14 major Indian states for the period are diverging overtime. Major states in India exhibited a lack of both sigma and beta convergence. Their analysis leads them to suggest that the forces of convergence are weak in India. Ahluwalia (2001) in his comparative evaluation of the economic performance of states observed that the estimated Gini-coefficient

Table 1: Employment by Sector – 1983 to 2004-05 (in millions)

Sector	1983	1993-94	1999-2000	2004-05
Agriculture	207.1	239.5	240.3	258.8
Mining and quarrying	1.8	2.7	2.3	2.5
Manufacturing	32.3	39.8	43.8	55.9
Electricity, water, etc	0.8	1.4	1.0	1.2
Construction	6.8	12.1	17.5	26.0
Trade (retail+ wholesale), hotels and restaurants	19.1	28.4	40.9	49.6
Transport, storage and communications	7.5	10.7	14.6	18.6
Other services such as finance, business, public administration, education, etc	26.7	39.8	38.1	45.4
All sectors	302.3	374.3	398.4	458.0

Source: NSS employment and unemployment surveys adjusted for population censuses. Employment is measured by number of workers by the usual principal and subsidiary status.

Table 2: Employment Growth Rates by Sector – 1983 to 2004-05*

Sector	1993-94 over 1983	1999-2000 over 1993-94	2004-05 over 1999-2000	2004-05 over 1993-94
Agriculture	1.4	0.1	1.5	0.7
Mining and quarrying	3.7	-2.8	2.4	-0.4
Manufacturing	2.0	1.6	5.0	3.1
Electricity, water, etc	4.8	-4.8	3.1	-1.2
Construction	5.7	6.4	8.2	7.2
Trade (retail+ wholesale), hotels and restaurants	3.8	6.3	3.9	5.2
Transport, storage and communications	3.4	5.3	4.9	5.1
Other services such as finance, business, public administration, education, etc	3.9	-0.7	3.6	1.2
All sectors	2.1	1.0	2.8	1.9

*Annual compound growth rates

Source: NSS employment and unemployment surveys adjusted for population censuses. Employment is measured by number of workers by the usual principal and subsidiary status.

(a key measure of income inequality) has increased from about 0.16 in 1986-87 to 0.23 in 1997-98.

I have estimated the Gini-coefficients for two years, 1993-94 and 2004-05, using per capita GSDP data. It is found to have risen from 0.28 in 1993-94 to 0.36 in 2004-05. These 14 states have large populations and together have a share of more than 93 per cent of India's population.¹ My analysis of employment growth is primarily based on the quinquennial NSS employment and unemployment surveys (EUS) spanning the period 1983 to 2004-05. It covers the longer period and makes possible analysis of cross-state employment growth and structure in the years of economic reform beginning in 1991. I pay greater attention to the problem of sectoral concentration and within sector changes in terms of duality (organised vs unorganised). The employment estimates are based on the estimates of all-India population for the four survey years (January-December) 1983, and (July-June) 1993-94, 1999-2000 and 2004-05.² This is supplemented by other sources for the organised sector like the ASI and the data from the employment information system of the Directorate General of Employment and Training (DGET).

Following the introduction, this paper is organised into four sections. Section 1 begins with a brief review of growth and employment trends in India for the period 1993 to 2003-04 and presents the state level analysis of GSDP growth and employment. In Section 2, an analysis of

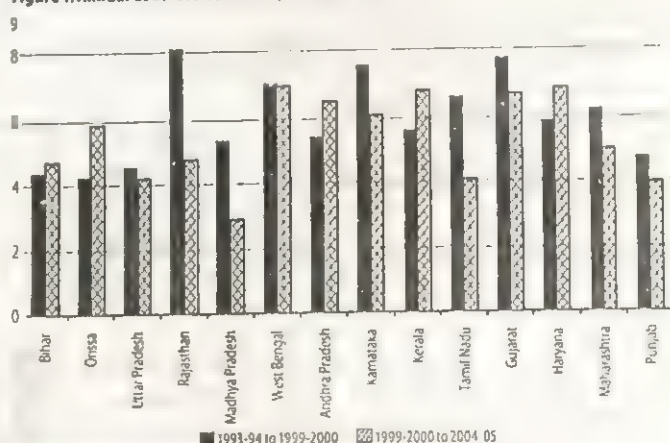
the concentration and diversification of the regional employment structure is presented. This section includes a discussion of dualism (organised and unorganised sectors) within sectors across states. Section 3 contains a discussion of interstate differences in labour productivity and educational attainment of population. Section 4 presents a summary of the main findings and concluding remarks.

1 Growth in Interstate GSDP and Employment

It is useful to summarise the employment changes at the all-India level. The employment growth profile is presented in Table 1 (absolute numbers) and in Table 2 (growth rates). The first fact to be noted is the constancy in the growth rate of aggregate employment in the 1980s (2 per cent during 1983 to 1993-94) and in the period spanning 1993-94 to 2004-05 (1.9 per cent). Second, the declining growth rate of employment in agriculture from 1.4 per cent in the 1980s to 0.7 per cent in the period 1993-94 to 2004-05. Third, the acceleration in employment growth rate in the construction sector. Fourth, the recovery of employment growth rate in the manufacturing sector in the recent period that is, 1999-2000 to 2004-05. Fifth, relatively higher rates of employment creation in the three service sectors, namely, trade and hotels, transport and communication and other services that include banking and business services. Sixth, one observes a greater change in employment shares of total employment in the post-reform period compared to the pre-reform period.³

This aggregate picture serves as the background for my state level analysis.⁴ The state level estimates of growth in GSDP and per capita GSDP cover the period 1993-94 to 2004-05. This period is further subdivided into two sub-periods, namely, 1993-94 to 1999-2000; 1999-2000 to 2004-05. This corresponds to the NSS50 years and enables me to systematically relate output and employment growth across states.⁵ In the analysis of employment differences, I cover the period 1983 to 1994. However, GSDP growth for that period is not presented due to unavailability of a consistent series based on 1993-94 prices. I have divided the 14 states into three groups by ranking each state based on its per capita GSDP for the year 1993-94. The bottom five are states with relatively low income, the middle four are medium income states and the top five are the relatively rich states.⁶

Figure 1: Annual GSDP Growth Rates (in %)



Source: National Accounts Statistics available at www.mospi.nic.in

What have been the growth trends in GDP and per capita GDP during 1993-94 to 2004-05? The estimates are shown in Table 3. First, the middle four and the top five ranking states (in terms of per capita GDP) have grown at a faster rate than the bottom four states in the entire period as well as the two sub-periods. Among the bottom five, Rajasthan has performed above average. Andhra Pradesh and Punjab are the under performing states in the medium (middle four) and high income groups (top five). The GDP

Table 3: Annual Growth of GDP and Per Capita GDP – 1993-94 to 2004-05 (in %)*

Rank* State	GDP at Constant Prices*			Per Capita GDP*		
	1993-94 to 1999-2000	1999-2000 to 2004-05	1993-94 to 2004-05	1993-94 to 1999-2000	1999-2000 to 2004-05	1993-94 to 2004-05
14 Bihar	4.4	4.7	4.6	1.7	2.4	2.0
13 Orissa	4.3	5.9	5.0	3.0	4.3	3.6
12 Uttar Pradesh	4.6	4.2	4.4	2.3	1.0	1.7
11 Rajasthan	8.2	4.8	6.6	5.5	2.5	4.1
10 Madhya Pradesh	5.4	2.9	4.3	3.4	0.9	2.2
Mean of bottom five	5.4	4.5	5.0	3.2	2.2	2.7
9 West Bengal	7.1	7.0	7.1	5.4	5.6	5.5
8 Andhra Pradesh	5.5	6.5	5.9	4.1	5.4	4.7
7 Karnataka	7.6	6.1	6.9	6.0	4.7	5.4
6 Kerala	5.6	6.8	6.2	4.5	6.2	5.3
Mean of middle four	6.2	6.2	6.2	5.0	5.5	5.2
5 Tamil Nadu	6.6	4.1	5.5	5.5	3.1	4.4
4 Gujarat	7.8	6.7	7.3	6.1	4.3	5.3
3 Haryana	5.9	6.9	6.3	3.8	4.1	3.9
2 Maharashtra	6.2	5.0	5.7	4.1	3.4	3.8
1 Punjab	4.8	3.9	4.4	1.9	-6.7	-2.1
Mean of top five	6.3	5.3	5.8	4.3	1.6	3.1
All 14 states	6.1	5.3	5.7	4.1	2.5	3.4
Coefficient of variation	23.1	24.5	18.7	31.6	128.2	61.3

* Average annual compound growth rates. The estimate of group mean is unweighted.

** Rank based on per capita GDP 1993-94.

Source: Estimates based on NAS available at www.mospi.nic.in and CMIE-NAS, October 2006

growth rate of West Bengal is similar to Gujarat, the fastest growing state in this period. The interstate disparities in per capita income has widened as suggested by the rising coefficient variation (cv) in the second sub-period (128 from 36.6). This is partly due to the poor performance of Punjab whose growth rate is negative in the period 1999-2000 to 2004-05. Even if one excludes Punjab, the cv increases from 33 to 45.7. The interstate differences in GDP growth rates are shown in Figure 1 (p 48). The employment outcome of this differential output growth needs to be analysed. In Table 5 (p 51) and Figure 2, the estimates and graph of growth rates in employment for the same set of states for the two sub-periods are shown respectively.

The second sub-period (1999-2000 to 2004-05) is a period of recovery of employment growth in India. Job creation has reappeared in the Indian economy after a period of jobless growth in the 1990s. This is correctly reflected in the state-wise employment growth trends in Table 4 (p 50). In the 14 major states employment grew by 2.8 per cent per annum. This is similar to the all-India growth rate that we referred to earlier (Table 2). This recovery in employment growth is across the 14 states with Kerala as the exception (growth of 1.3 per cent in the first against 1.2 per cent in the second). Recovery is stronger in the higher income states (3.2 per cent from 1.4 per cent). Employment growth in the bottom five states with a share of more than 44 per cent of the workforce, has picked up to grow at the average of 14 states (2.8 per cent) in the second period. We may note the impressive employment performance of two of the bottom

five states, namely, Uttar Pradesh and Rajasthan. Among others, four states have recorded impressive growth rates in the second period, namely, West Bengal, Karnataka, Haryana and Maharashtra. The relevant question is what has been the nature of this employment growth across states in terms of rural urban divide and formal and informal composition? Which sectors have grown and which have fallen behind? This will determine the quality of employment growth in a broader structural perspective.

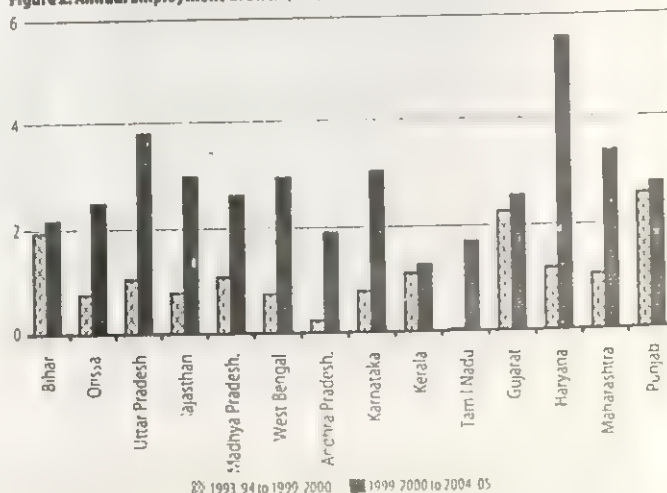
A comparison of urban and rural employment growth rates between pre-liberalisation years and post-liberalisation years is presented in Table 5 (p 51). The urban bias in relative growth rates of employment is evident. Across the 14 states, employment has grown faster in urban areas in both the sub-periods of the post-liberalisation period (1993-94 to 1999-2000 and 1999-2000 to 2004-05). Kerala is the only exception with low growth rates in both urban and rural areas. In the top five states, the average urban employment growth is higher than that in the bottom five states. A significantly positive development has been the recovery of rural employment, on the average, in the second sub-period (1999-00 to 2004-05) across all the states. However, two states have experienced a slow down in rural employment, namely, Gujarat and Tamil Nadu. It is negative growth in Tamil Nadu, a state of high urban employment growth. Is there a positive relationship between the initial level of urbanisation and urban employment growth? We observed a significant positive correlation between initial urbanisation in 1993-94 and total urban employment growth rate for the period 1993-94 and 2004-05 (Figure 3, p 50).

This clearly implies that benefits of growth in terms of employment have largely gone to urbanised states in the years since liberalisation. Perhaps this is the dark side of employment growth in India aggravating interstate inequalities. Figure 4 (p 51) exhibits the interstate differences in rural and urban employment growth rates for the period 1999-2000 to 2004-05.

2 Regional Employment Structure

The traditional Kuznets-Chenery perspective of structural transformation suggests a reallocation of labour from agriculture to manufacturing and services as per capita income rises. The

Figure 2: Annual Employment Growth (in %)



Source: NSS employment and unemployment survey results of 50th, 55th and 61st rounds

evolution of sectoral shares in India is observed to be unusual and may have far-reaching implications for employment growth [Kochhar et al 2006 among others]. India's share of services in GDP has risen rapidly from 37 per cent to 49 per cent between

Table 4: Annual Growth of Employment – 1993-94 to 2004-05 (in %)

Rank	State	Employment Share in 1993-94	Employment Growth		
			1993-94 to 1999-2000	1999-2000 to 2004-05	1993-94 to 2004-05
14	Bihar	9.0	2.0	2.2	2.1
13	Orissa	4.1	0.8	2.5	1.6
12	Uttar Pradesh	15.5	1.1	3.8	2.3
11	Rajasthan	6.3	0.8	3.0	1.8
10	Madhya Pradesh	9.1	1.1	2.7	1.8
	Average of bottom five	43.8*	1.1	2.8	1.9
9	West Bengal	7.6	0.8	3.0	1.8
8	Andhra Pradesh	10.3	0.2	1.9	1.0
7	Karnataka	6.3	0.8	3.1	1.8
6	Kerala	3.3	1.1	1.3	1.2
	Average of middle four	27.6*	0.8	2.4	1.5
5	Tamil Nadu	8.1	0.0	1.7	0.8
4	Gujarat	5.5	2.3	2.6	2.4
3	Haryana	1.9	1.2	5.6	3.1
2	Maharashtra	10.9	1.0	3.4	2.1
1	Punjab	2.3	2.6	2.8	2.7
	Average of top five	28.6*	1.4	3.2	2.2
	All 14 states	100.0	1.0	2.8	1.8

* Sum of shares states, average annual compound growth rates (per cent); rank based per capita GSDP 1993-94

1980 and 2000. However, the rise in employment share – from 18.6 per cent to 22.4 per cent – during the same period is marginal. This implies a rapid increase in labour productivity in the services sector, perhaps due to growth in skill-intensive services [Gordon and Gupta 2004]. This all-India aggregate picture hides many regional variations. The regional variations in per capita income could perhaps be due to the uneven spread of service sector employment both in quantity and quality. Higher income states will have a greater share of productive services, while the low income states may end up with low productivity employment that is actually a spillover of lack of alternative productive employment opportunities. A preliminary look at the evolution of sectoral diversification of state economies is likely to throw some light on this issue.

The pattern of sectoral diversification along the development path has been recently examined by Imbs and Wacziarg (2003). Their detailed empirical study showed a u-shaped pattern in sectoral concentration – countries begin their development journey at a high level of concentration (low income levels) and diversification increases reaches a minimum level and then the economic activity structure starts concentrating again. This scheme therefore suggests that there are two stages of diversification in the development process. The first one is of increasing diversification followed by one of increasing concentration. However, the minimum point occurs quite late in the evolution process of sectoral diversification. This is interpreted to suggest that countries diversify most of their development path. They estimate it to occur at the per capita income level of approximately

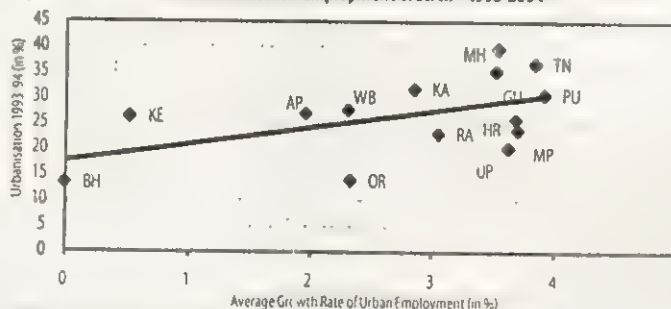
\$9,000 (constant 1985 us dollars). India and her constituent states are far below this level of income and are likely to experience increasing diversification. However, it is important to what know the level and speed of change in diversification underlying the present ongoing development process are. This will reveal the inertia or structural backwardness constraining the inter-regional differences.

The first cut would be the employment shares of three important sectors, namely, agriculture, manufacturing and services. This is presented in Table 6 (p 51) for two selected years 1993-94 and 2004-05 – a gap of 11 years; a reasonable period to consider as structural change is a long-run process. The interesting question is whether trade and structural reform years would show-up intersector labour reallocation or structural inertia. The study by Wacziarg and Wallack (2004) that examined 25 liberalisation episodes could not detect any dramatic or increased structural shifts in employment shares across the nine 2-digit sectors. At the all-India level, I had observed greater changes in employment shares relative to the change during the pre-reform years of 1983-94 [Ramaswamy 2007]. This is an important finding because lack of change in employment shares would have suggested an absence of resource movements to gain from comparative advantages. In other words, intersectoral flows of workers are found to be greater in the post-reform period. Whether this is translated into welfare gains is another issue that we will take up later.

At the sub-national level, expectedly, the bottom five states (lower income) have higher shares in agriculture than the higher income states (middle and top). It is important to note that Madhya Pradesh is the state with the highest share in agriculture and Kerala is the state with the lowest share in agriculture to begin with in 1993-94. However, in 2004-05, status quo has been maintained by these two states. More interesting are the cases of West Bengal and Tamil Nadu. In 1993-94, West Bengal had an employment share (48.8 per cent) close to that of Kerala but had a higher share in manufacturing (19.9 per cent). In 2004-05, Tamil Nadu

has become the state with highest share in manufacturing (closely followed by Gujarat), the second highest in services and the second lowest share in agriculture (next to Kerala). West Bengal and Tamil Nadu are similar in terms of services sector share. We need to determine whether these similarities and differences

Figure 3: Initial Urbanisation and Urban Employment Growth – 1993-2004*



* The urban growth rate for Bihar is negative but is taken as zero with a view not to clutter the diagram
Source: NSS employment and unemployment survey results of 50th, 55th and 61st rounds.

imply much more in terms of productivity of employment. I will take up this aspect again when I discuss interstate differences in sectoral labour productivity levels (sectoral NSDP per worker, see Table 6).

2.1 Sectoral and Spatial Concentration

I have used the Herfindhal-Hirschman index (HH index) of concentration to measure sectoral concentration of employment. The HH index is one of the most commonly used measures of

concentration of output and employment in the literature on regional economics dealing with spatial concentration of activity? I utilise the nine sector classification of the national industrial classification (NIC-98) followed by the NSS employment surveys. I estimate the HH index for each of the four quinquennial survey years, namely, 1983, 1993-94, 1999-2000 and 2004-05.

The HH index is defined as the sum of the squares of (percentage) employment shares in each state. $\sum E_i^2$; where E_i = employment share of the i th sector in a state and $i = 1, \dots, 9$.

Table 5: Annual Employment Growth by State – Urban vs Rural (in %)

State	Urban			Rural		
	1993-94 over 1983-84	1999-2000 over 1993-94	2004-05 over 1999-2000	1993-94 over 1983-84	1999-2000 over 1993-94	2004-05 over 1999-2000
Bihar	0.1	2.4	3.9	1.3	1.9	2
Orissa	3.7	1.5	3.4	1.7	0.7	2.4
Uttar Pradesh	3	2.8	4.6	1.5	0.7	3.7
Rajasthan	3	2	4.3	2.2	0.5	2.7
Madhya Pradesh	3.4	3.1	4.5	1.9	0.7	2.2
Average of bottom five	2.6	2.4	4.1	1.7	0.9	2.6
West Bengal	2.6	1.6	3.2	2.1	0.4	2.9
Andhra Pradesh	3.9	0.1	4.3	2.3	0.2	1.3
Karnataka	2.9	2.5	3.2	2.1	0.2	3
Kerala	4.3	0.7	0.3	0.2	1.3	1.6
Average of middle four	3.4	1.2	2.8	1.7	0.5	2.2
Tamil Nadu	3	3	4.9	1.1	-1.4	-0.2
Gujarat	3.4	2.8	4.4	1.6	2.1	1.8
Haryana	4.2	2.6	5	2.5	0.7	5.8
Maharashtra	3.7	2.4	4.9	1.6	0.4	2.6
Punjab	2.7	3.9	3.9	0.1	2	2.3
Average of top five	3.4	2.9	4.6	1.4	0.8	2.5
Total of 14 states	3.3*	2.3	3.8	1.7*	0.7	2.4

Source: Chaddha and Sahut (Table 12, 2002) for 1993-94 over 1983-84 and others are author's estimates based on NSS employment surveys (EUS).

Table 6: Employment Share by Sector – 1993-94 and 2004-05 (in %)

State	1993-94			2004-05		
	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Services	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Services
Bihar	76.7	4.9	15.6	68.9	7.2	18.0
Orissa	73.7	7.5	15.0	62.3	11.4	19.1
Uttar Pradesh	68.4	8.7	20.1	60.6	12.3	20.9
Rajasthan	69.2	6.2	15.3	61.3	9.1	18.2
Madhya Pradesh	72.7	5.5	13.4	69.1	7.5	18.2
Average of bottom five	73.1	6.6	15.9	64.4	9.5	18.9
West Bengal	48.8	19.9	27.1	45.7	17.5	31.6
Andhra Pradesh	67.1	9.2	19.6	58.4	11.0	24.8
Karnataka	65.1	10.7	19.7	60.8	10.6	23.8
Kerala	48.3	14.3	29.6	35.5	14.4	37.7
Average of middle four	57.3	13.5	24.0	50.1	13.4	29.5
Tamil Nadu	52.6	18.0	24.8	41.2	21.1	30.9
Gujarat	58.9	15.2	21.4	54.8	17.1	23.1
Haryana	56.9	9.1	27.7	50.0	13.5	27.7
Maharashtra	59.4	11.3	25.1	53.1	12.5	28.7
Punjab	56.4	10.3	28.1	47.4	13.5	29.8
Average of top five	56.8	12.8	25.4	49.3	15.5	28.0
All 14 states	64.5	10.5	20.7	57.0	12.4	24.1

The row sum of sectoral shares does not sum to 100 as mining, construction and electricity have been left out.
Source: NSS employment survey 1993-94 and 2004-05

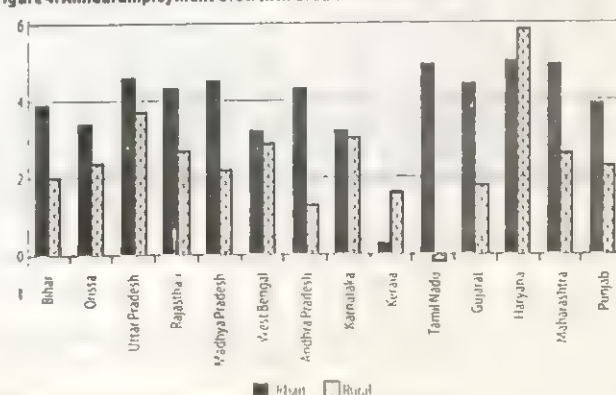
The HH index reaches a maximum value of 10,000 when only one sector has all the employment (100 per cent) and has a lower bound of 1111, that is all the sectors have an equal share (note that the lower bound varies with the number of sectors), in the case of nine sectors.⁸ Lower the estimated HH index, more equal the sector shares and more diversified is the economy (states of India in our case). The estimated HH index is shown in Table 7 (p 52). All the 14 states in our sample clearly show the tendency for diversification (the change in HH index is negative across all states). The HH index for the aggregate of 14 states show a decline of 18 percentage points over the period 1994 to 2004. Relative to

this average, only one state in the low income category, namely, Orissa shows a substantial decline (25 per cent). In the middle income group, Kerala's diversification is higher (a decline of 29 per cent). In the top five group, Tamil Nadu stands out as a state with greater diversification tendency Andhra Pradesh and Punjab look similar in their diversification trends. The economies of West Bengal and Karnataka show a substantially lower rate of diversification of economic activity relative to the average. It is important to note that low income states have more concentrated structures to begin with and are changing at a much slower pace. How has the level of initial diversification had an impact on employment growth prospects in different states?

More diversified states should have grown faster with the opening of the economy in the 1990s as they would be in a better position to take advantage of trade and growth opportunities. If this is true then a negative relationship between the initial HH index (concentration) and employment growth may be expected. In Figure 5 (p 52), I plot the HH index in the year beginning 1993-94 against the subsequent employment growth rates in the selected 14 states. The figure shows a positive correlation between the initial extent of diversification in a state and employment growth in the subsequent years. Interstate disparities in the level and changes in diversification is obviously the cause of interstate income disparities. Slow diversification of some of the major states such as Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan is certainly matter of concern for policy. At the same time, there may be concentration within sectors like registered manufacturing as reported by Kochhar et al (2006) that may accentuate the divergence tendencies. The slow growth of employment in low income states is partly due to the slow rate of diversification of economic activity in these economies.

Another important question that is often discussed in this context of regional disparities in developing countries is that of geographic (spatial) concentration of particular sectors (like manufacturing) across locations.⁹ Due to historical accidents, industrialisation began earlier in certain states. I examine whether the degree of geographic concentration (note the difference between sectoral concentration mentioned above and geographic concentration) of selected sectors has increased or decreased in recent years. Here, I estimate the spatial (or locational) HH index for each sector. The spatial HH index is defined as follows: $\sum (s_i - x_i)^2$; where s_i is the employment share of a state in the i th sector and

Figure 4: Annual Employment Growth in Urban and Rural Areas – 1999-2004 (in %)



Source: NSS employment and unemployment survey results of 55th and 61st rounds

x_i is the state's share in total employment in the economy (or aggregate of selected states)¹⁰ and $i=1, \dots, 14$.

This is estimated for three selected sectors, namely, manufacturing, services and a sub-component of services sector, namely, financial, real estate and business services. The services sector is defined as the aggregate of transport, trade, communication and financial services sectors. The last sector is estimated separately because of its nature as a skill-intensive sector that has come to prominence in recent years. The estimates of spatial HH indices for three selected sectors for four selected years are presented

Table 7: Sectoral Concentration of Employment by State*

State	1983 HH Index	1993-94 HH Index	1999-2000 HH Index	2004-05 HH Index	Change in HH Index 2004 over 1994
Bihar	6061.2	6003.6	5500.9	4945.4	-17.6
Orissa	5479.2	5586.9	5186.8	4184.4	-25.1
Uttar Pradesh	5387.5	4910.9	4332.8	4015.7	-18.2
Rajasthan	5964.6	4960.9	4566.6	4049.0	-18.4
Madhya Pradesh	6291.2	6143.3	5599.3	4974.3	-19.0
West Bengal	3818.4	3042.5	2853.9	2740.5	-9.9
Andhra Pradesh	5045.9	4732.5	4525.0	3759.5	-20.6
Karnataka	4940.8	4508.3	4194.3	4009.1	-11.1
Kerala	3709.2	2866.3	2204.9	2019.9	-29.5
Tamil Nadu	3341.2	3317.7	2826.9	2485.1	-25.1
Gujarat	4681.8	3882.1	3868.6	3194.2	-10.0
Haryana	5408.1	3638.5	3219.8	3001.1	-17.5
Maharashtra	5269.6	3882.4	3555.5	3250.5	-16.3
Punjab	4924.1	3596.2	3274.7	2794.2	-22.3
All 14 states	5057.7	4434.1	4043.1	3630.3	-18.1

Source: * Estimates use employment shares of nine sectors in each state based on NSS employment-unemployment surveys

Table 8: Geographic Concentration of Sectoral Employment – HH-Spatial Index

Sector/Year	1983	1993-94	1999-2000	2004-05
Manufacturing	75.9	146.0	94.6	74.0
Services	50.9	51.2	56.2	29.9
Finance, real estate and business services*	189.5	216.2	212.6	223.5

* This includes software services defined since 1999-2000

Source: Estimates based on NSS employment-unemployment surveys

in Table 8. Is there a change in the geographic concentration of sectoral employment?

To begin with, note that the finance and business services sector is more concentrated than the other two, namely, manufacturing and total services in the initial year, that is, 1983-84. Over the next 20 years, concentration first increases and then declines in manufacturing. The level of concentration in 2004-05 is found to be similar to the concentration level in 1983-84. In the services sector, the aggregate of trade, transport and finance, concentration remains flat till 1993-94 and then declines in 2004-05. However, in the sub-group, finance and business services, it rises sharply in 1993-94 and shows some marginal decline in between but raises again in the last year 2004-05. This supports the proposition that skilled labour-intensive activities are becoming geographically concentrated. The flatness of aggregate services perhaps simply reflects the geographical spread of transport, retail and services like telecommunication and public administration with economic development.

2.2 Employment Growth: Organised or Unorganised?

India is well known as a classic case of the Lewisian dual economy with a small organised and a large unorganised sector. Many interesting and provocative questions have been asked about the continuity of this dichotomy in India. Is there an intensification of duality in recent years of trade reform? Is the service sector

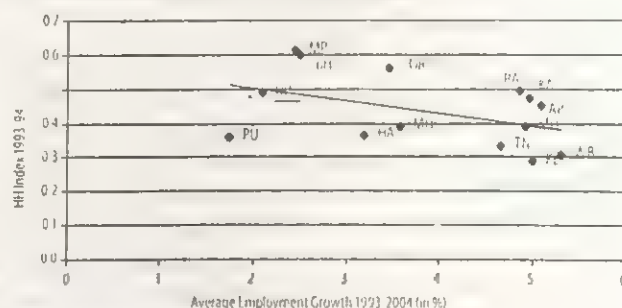
more dualistic than the manufacturing sector in terms of wage differentials? All these are pertinent questions. As we note the stagnation in agriculture sector jobs in the last 20 years, we see that most of the addition to the labour force is absorbed by the non-agricultural sector. Actually, this absorption mechanism has been driven by the unorganised informal sector.

Are there interstate differences in this changing structure of duality? What are the implications? It may be noted that official definition of the unorganised sector is much broader than the standard concept of informal manufacturing enterprises. In manufacturing, all factories with less than 10 workers or less than 20 (if they are not using power) are considered informal enterprises. However, the official unorganised sector includes all unincorporated household enterprises, partnership enterprises, cooperative enterprises, private and limited companies. These unorganised sector enterprises have created much employment in India across states. They are characterised by low wage and low (labour) productivity activities. The unorganised sector is also known to be the "waiting" sector where migrants from rural areas locate themselves before they can get a job in the urban organised enterprises. The working and labour conditions in this sector are well documented.

What has been the experience of Indian states with respect to unorganised employment? How they are estimated? The standard procedure for estimating employment in the unorganised sectors is the use of the residual method. In this method, the estimates of organised sector employment provided by the Directorate General of Employment and Training (DGERT), based on their employment information system, are subtracted from the NSS based estimates of total employment in each sector. Following this method, I have estimated the growth rates of unorganised sector employment, absolute change in the private sector within the organised sector and the share of the organised sector in total employment in each of the 14 states (Table 9, p 53). The unorganised sector employment growth is uniformly positive across the 14 states. More importantly, the private sector within the organised sector has created substantial absolute number of employment in three states, namely, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka and Gujarat.

In the aggregate, the public sector in India has shed jobs in the 1990s. At the same time, four states at the bottom of the income ladder (Bihar, Orissa, Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh) and two middle income states (West Bengal, Kerala) and one high income state (Maharashtra) have negative net employment

Figure 5: Initial Diversification and Employment Growth



Source: NSS employment and unemployment survey results of 50th, 55th and 61st rounds

growth in the private sector segment of the organised sector. The organised sector share within each state is lower in the bottom

Table 9: Employment Disparities – Organised vs Unorganised (in %)

State	Employment Growth In 2004-05 over 1993-94		Organised Sector Share in Total Employment	
	Unorganised Sector Growth (%)	Private Sector ("000")	2005	1994
Bihar	2.4	-78.1	4.0	5.5
Orissa	1.8	-2.3	4.5	5.6
Uttar Pradesh	2.7	-47.5	3.4	4.9
Rajasthan	2.1	8.6	4.4	5.6
Madhya Pradesh	2.2	-52.9	3.7	5.3
West Bengal	2.2	-34.1	6.3	8.8
Andhra Pradesh	1.1	207.9	5.1	5.2
Karnataka	2.0	305.1	6.9	6.9
Kerala	1.5	-22.0	8.8	10.5
Tamil Nadu	1.0	9.8	7.4	8.5
Gujarat	2.9	132.3	6.8	8.9
Haryana	3.8	32.1	7.1	9.7
Maharashtra	2.6	-34.0	7.4	9.9
Punjab	3.3	13.9	7.2	10.4
All India	2.2	438.8	5.5	7

*Absolute change in number of employees

Source: Estimates based on DGEI data on organised sector employment as on March 1994 and March 2005

March 1994 data is from www.industat.com and March 2005 data is available in quarterly employment review at www.dgei.gov.in

labour productivity levels across sectors. This is shown in the next section.

3 Employment, Labour Productivity and Education

The structural transformation process of development is supposed to create greater productive jobs not merely jobs of average rural sector productivity. This greater productivity drives output growth and in turn, generates more employment for all. This process of change demands greater skilled (more educated or number of years of schooling) labour. This simple stylisation gets complicated in dual economies like India with segmented labour markets (formal and informal) within sectors, whether it is manufacturing or services. Greater employment growth in the non-agricultural sector may turn out to be low productivity jobs if it is mostly in low technology-low wage-low labour productivity segments. As I observed earlier, the low income states suffer from lower rates of diversification measured by HH indices of concentration and added to that they have lower shares of organised sector employment within their economies. Both these should constrain them to lower average labour productivity levels. In order to test this proposition I estimated labour productivity for the selected six sectors for three selected years, namely, 1993-94, 1999-2000 and 2004-05. These years correspond to the three quinquennial NSSs. The output data at constant 1993-94 prices is available in national accounts statistics.¹¹ I measure sector output by net state domestic product (NSDP) at constant 1993-94 prices. Sector employment levels are taken from the estimates based on NSS employment surveys. I exclude the electricity and mining sectors as they have different structural features in many ways like regulation, natural resource base, etc. The category other services that comprises education, public administration and social services is also excluded. Growth rates of labour productivity are not presented, as the proposition that I focus on is whether initial low income states also have depressed or relatively lower productivity

levels over time. Recall that the 14 states were ranked in terms of their per capita income in the base year 1993-94.

I begin with the comparison of agriculture and manufacturing sectors in Table 10.

Let us focus on a comparison of the beginning year (1993-94) and end year (2004-05) levels with a gap of 11 years. Expectedly, the manufacturing sector labour productivity level is higher in all states. Manufacturing productivity in the bottom five states is not only lower than the average but it is declining over the years. The top five states have average productivity that is more than the average in both agriculture as well as manufacturing. Tamil Nadu appears to be an exception with lower than average productivity in manufacturing. Recall that Tamil Nadu is a state with a high rate of urban employment growth (in fact employment is entirely urban!).

Next, I compare two service sectors that are presumably modern and relatively skill intensive, namely, transport and communication (T&C) and financial and business services (Table 11). The differences are sharper with the five bottom states have lower productivity and declining in financial and business services. It has three exceptionally high productive states, namely, West Bengal, Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka. T&C fares better due to

Table 10: Interstate Differences in Labour Productivity Levels (Rs per worker)

State	Agriculture			Manufacturing		
	1993-94	1999-00	2004-05	1993-94	1999-00	2004-05
Bihar	5,936	6,166	7,937	25,177	24,419	21,833
Orissa	6,870	6,570	7,509	11,063	14,202	12,677
Uttar Pradesh	8,437	10,373	9,675	21,248	18,033	16,393
Rajasthan	6,748	8,979	9,840	23,829	40,147	28,889
Madhya Pradesh	7,620	8,116	7,589	36,344	39,020	31,692
Average of bottom five	7,122	8,041	8,510	23,532	27,164	22,297
West Bengal	12,962	16,390	16,439	14,311	22,085	24,593
Andhra Pradesh	7,684	8,683	10,675	19,215	29,745	26,919
Karnataka	9,622	12,111	9,021	27,391	34,446	41,104
Kerala	13,858	18,051	15,598	16,570	21,018	18,152
Average of middle four	11,032	13,809	12,933	19,372	26,824	25,373
Tamil Nadu	8,943	10,870	13,933	25,744	29,714	25,552
Gujarat	9,133	9,025	12,292	37,975	66,077	56,802
Haryana	22,427	25,298	23,186	60,924	69,269	59,572
Maharashtra	9,366	10,865	8,704	57,020	72,803	57,433
Punjab	28,817	30,146	32,866	47,089	51,165	34,367
Average of top five	15,737	17,241	18,196	45,750	57,806	47,711
Total of 14 states	9,085	10,398	10,752	28,773	35,116	32,164

Source: NSDP from NAS and employment from NSS

Table 11: Labour Productivity Level Differences (Rs per worker)

State	Transport and Communication			Financial and Business Services		
	1993-94	1999-2000	2004-05	1993-94	1999-2000	2004-05
Bihar	24,037	1,217	27,184	1,34,927	54,553	1,11,043
Orissa	34,847	5,511	1,114	3,51,111	2,57,211	1,11,111
Uttar Pradesh	25,204	28,551	11,111	1,11,111	1,11,111	1,11,111
Rajasthan	24,345	37,320	55,287	1,73,567	2,11,111	1,11,111
Madhya Pradesh	36,847	48,261	76,019	2,34,735	2,93,653	2,02,015
Average of bottom five	29,059	34,901	53,151	2,15,939	2,22,668	1,73,685
West Bengal	26,668	29,208	45,237	1,74,297	3,23,040	3,73,785
Andhra Pradesh	29,199	38,359	54,615	1,99,424	2,39,214	2,31,165
Karnataka	24,751	43,079	62,422	1,64,741	1,85,655	2,11,703
Kerala	23,250	30,476	71,306	1,32,699	1,41,111	1,11,111
Average of middle four	25,967	35,268	58,395	1,67,790	2,22,275	2,43,768
Tamil Nadu	29,739	40,906	64,429	1,36,076	1,97,724	1,34,751
Gujarat	35,733	54,128	81,614	3,49,738	3,17,093	3,28,620
Haryana	40,877	74,634	1,04,411	2,40,810	2,52,155	1,75,342
Maharashtra	47,964	60,571	1,13,641	2,81,750	3,24,470	2,29,480
Punjab	23,191	34,232	62,466	2,43,612	2,79,223	2,26,416
Average of top five	35,501	52,804	85,312	2,50,437	2,74,133	2,18,911
Total of 14 states	31,151	40,913	64,564	2,07,112	2,45,729	2,13,842

Source: NAS for NSDP and NSS for employment

high productivity in Madhya Pradesh and Orissa. They are the bright spots in an otherwise dismal productivity levels in these states across sectors.

I move on to a comparison of construction and trade (includes hotels and repair services) two well known unskilled

Table 12: Labour Productivity Level Differences – Construction vs Retail Trade and Hotels (Rs per worker)

State	Construction			Trade, Repair Services and Hotels		
	1993-94	1999-00	2004-05	1993-94	1999-00	2004-05
Bihar	29,083	25,283	18,015	23,533	24,746	21,140
Orissa	33,917	23,512	11,616	20,319	21,233	20,877
Uttar Pradesh	27,898	27,181	21,884	28,579	23,868	21,411
Rajasthan	18,017	25,525	25,293	38,561	42,807	42,842
Madhya Pradesh	47,730	61,113	42,180	38,574	29,685	24,713
Average of bottom five	31,329	32,523	23,798	29,913	28,468	26,197
West Bengal	26,421	34,350	28,748	21,372	26,443	35,779
Andhra Pradesh	26,199	29,445	35,609	27,512	33,240	32,610
Karnataka	33,293	49,135	47,509	28,033	32,183	42,012
Kerala	27,025	18,286	22,752	35,518	31,800	48,726
Average of middle four	28,235	32,804	33,655	28,109	30,917	39,782
Tamil Nadu	26,188	36,231	34,341	28,940	35,050	46,460
Gujarat	31,588	44,348	51,285	36,486	35,583	48,734
Haryana	43,253	43,290	31,534	43,923	43,152	71,492
Maharashtra	41,286	38,371	37,899	39,052	41,424	53,536
Punjab	38,818	33,930	36,759	41,395	37,815	39,103
Average of top five	35,579	40,560	38,765	37,100	38,802	55,056
Total of 14 states	29,983	33,062	30,290	30,811	31,874	36,917

Source: NAS and NSS

labour-intensive sectors (Table 12). Surprisingly, labour productivity is declining in both the sectors in the bottom five states. In the trade and hotels sector, productivity levels have gone up in the middle four and the top five states. Low income states have a lot of catching up to do even in these sectors.

Finally, let us note that labour productivity in aggregate manufacturing per se is not meaningful as it has a large informal component. Therefore, I compare two segments within manufacturing, that is, registered and unregistered. I estimate the ratio of unregistered sector to registered sector labour productivity (Table 13). Within the manufacturing sector, differences emerge rather sharply. The striking fact is the large and widening gap in productivity between the registered and unregistered sectors in the bottom five states. Relative productivity of the unregistered sector is tending towards abysmally low. This suggests increasing divergence of productivity between states. The registered sector is galloping with high labour productivity growth across states. Informalisation of the labour force is driving down productivity in the unregistered sector perhaps more intensively in the low income states. Tamil Nadu is perhaps the only state that has maintained the relative productivity of the unregistered sector over the years. The reasons for this would be worth exploring.

3.1 Education, Skill Supply and Labour Productivity

Bosworth, Collins and Virmani (2007) in their detailed study of sources of growth in India, covering the period 1960-2004, call attention to the low levels of educational attainment of the Indian population and workforce. They point out that India has recently attained an average level of schooling comparable to that achieved in other Asian countries a quarter century earlier [Bosworth, Collins and Virmani 2007, Table 7]. In term of the educational attainment of the workforce, their estimates indicate that nearly 40 per cent of the workforce is found to be illiterate

and those who have completed secondary schooling account for 14 per cent of workers, while an additional 6 per cent are estimated to have a university degree (ibid).

The recent NSS survey on education and training (NSS report no 517) points out that in India, among the persons of age of 15 years and above, only 2 per cent had technical degrees or diplomas or certificates. I present in Table 14 (p 55) the interstate differences in educational attainment of persons (rural and urban areas) in India in 2004-05. Literates with general educational level secondary and above including diploma/certificate course have been considered to be educated (NSS report 517, pp 25). Following this definition, the numbers in Table 14 indicate large interstate variation in educational attainment. The bottom five states suffer from a serious shortage of educated persons. In these states, only 17 per cent are found to be educated and more seriously only 12 per cent are found to have secondary education or higher secondary education as against the all India average of 24 per cent and 16 per cent respectively. Expectedly, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, Gujarat and Maharashtra emerge as educated states. The educational performance of Kerala is well known. Among middle income states, Andhra Pradesh and West Bengal have below average education. In brief, high income states also have better potential supply of educated persons. Notice, in particular, the relative advantage in terms of secondary education attainment in better off states. This will prove to be a great source of comparative advantage for these states in the years to come.

It is fairly well argued that secondary education is crucial for economic growth [Lewin and Caillods 2001]. Modern industry, whether it is manufacturing or services sector like telecommunications, emphasises training and skill acquisition on the job. A workforce with secondary school attainment will turn out to be the best bet for such a job market. What has been the relative position of Indian states in this area of education? In Table 15 (p 55), data on gross enrolment ratios for upper primary and secondary schooling in India for the 14 states for the year 2003-04 is shown. The relatively better development of education in middle income and high

Table 13: Labour Productivity Ratio – Unregistered to Registered Manufacturing

State	Registered		
	1993-94	1999-00	2004-05
Bihar	0.07	0.01	0.01
Orissa	0.09	0.03	0.01
Uttar Pradesh	0.13	0.09	0.07
Rajasthan	0.26	0.10	0.11
Madhya Pradesh	0.25	0.14	0.07
Average of bottom five	0.16	0.07	0.05
West Bengal	0.18	0.16	0.12
Andhra Pradesh	0.21	0.28	0.14
Karnataka	0.15	0.20	0.13
Kerala	0.23	0.16	0.13
Average of middle four	0.19	0.19	0.13
Tamil Nadu	0.16	0.17	0.16
Gujarat	0.18	0.26	0.14
Haryana	0.51	0.33	0.17
Maharashtra	0.21	0.21	0.13
Punjab	0.49	0.26	0.16
Average of top five	0.29	0.25	0.15
Total of 14 states	0.17	0.14	0.11

Source: NAS for NSDP and NSS for employment and unemployment survey

income states emerges clearly. West Bengal lags behind and looks more like bottom five states in this respect.

The constraint of skilled labour (human capital) is likely to be the binding constraint for growth and employment in many states in India. This leads me to ask the following question: Do states with better initial gross enrolment ratios (GER) in secondary education have better labour productivity growth? I investigate this in a preliminary way. The results are shown in Figure

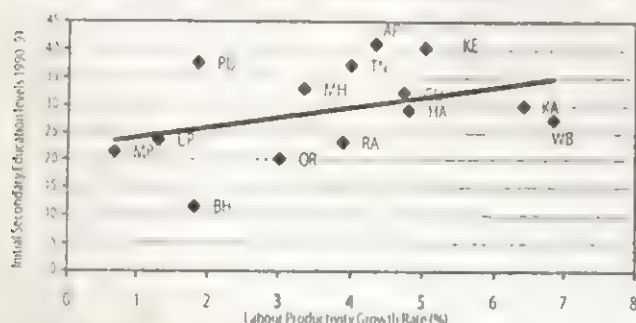
6 (p 55), where I plot the secondary education GER in 1990-91 on the growth rates of non-agriculture labour productivity in 14 states for the period 1993-94 to 2004-05.¹² The positive relationship observed is very encouraging. Labour productivity is the key proximate determinant of output and employment. States with better supply of secondary school educated workers are likely to

Table 14: Educational Differences by State – 2004-05

State	Not Literate	Literate and Up to Primary	Middle Secondary	Higher Secondary	Diploma/ Certificate	Graduate and Above	All
Bihar	516	198	118	92	40	2	33
Orissa	412	252	177	75	35	5	43
Uttar Pradesh	478	178	144	82	61	4	52
Rajasthan	524	192	125	62	47	5	44
Madhya Pradesh	456	252	115	61	55	8	54
Average of bottom five	477	214	136	74	48	5	45
West Bengal	325	321	162	82	49	3	58
Andhra Pradesh	491	193	109	99	45	13	48
Karnataka	382	200	171	124	58	11	55
Kerala	94	268	305	154	63	58	58
Average of middle four	323	246	187	115	54	21	55
Tamil Nadu	293	278	160	117	68	18	66
Gujarat	318	229	189	124	63	16	61
Haryana	351	218	117	150	78	15	71
Maharashtra	271	199	226	132	69	29	73
Punjab	315	213	126	175	87	19	65
Average of top five	310	227	164	140	73	19	67
All India	382	228	160	102	58	12	57

Source: NSS 51st round report no 517, Table 3.8.1 (pp 66) on per 1,000 distribution of persons of 15 years and above by general educational level

Figure 6: Initial Education and Non-Agriculture Labour Productivity



Source: Ram (2007) and author's estimates based on NAS and NSS survey results

get more investment and jobs coming in their way. It is now well established that a major chunk of investment, domestic and foreign direct investment (FDI), has gone into five selected states, namely, Maharashtra, Gujarat, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu (Bagchi and Kurian 2005). Incidentally, these are all relatively well endowed states with an educated workforce. This finding is troubling, because it also reflects the reality of higher unemployment of secondary educated workers. The higher output growth rate has not sufficiently absorbed the additions to the educated labour force. One might conjecture that this suggests a serious mismatch of demand and supply in the labour market for trained workers. This interesting area needs to be explored further more deeply than possible in this paper.

4 Concluding Remarks

Development is bound to be inequalitarian, as Nobel laureate Arthur Lewis pointed out long ago, because it does not start in every part of the economy at the same time. However, the diffusion of economic and social development across sub-national

units once the economy growth process is initiated has important implications for future growth and well-being. The structure of employment growth and variation across states in India is a key outcome of this unfolding development process. I have examined some aspects of this regional employment growth in India. My analysis is confined to 14 selected major states in India accounting for 93 per cent of the population. GDP growth in the high and medium income states grew faster relative to the low income states over the period 1993-94 to 2004-05. As a consequence, the coefficient of variation increased from 36.6 in 1993-94 to 128 in 1999-2000 to 2004-05 suggesting widening of regional disparities in the reform period.

At the national level, employment has picked up in the period 1999-2000 to 2004-05, with manufacturing, construction and services creating substantial number of jobs. At the sub-national level employment, growth is unevenly distributed across states.

The disquieting feature is the urban bias in the relative growth rates of employment. Urban employment has grown faster in states with higher initial levels of urbanisation. Across the 14 states, employment has grown faster in urban areas in both the sub-periods of the post-liberalisation period (1993-94 to 1999-2000 and 1999-2000 to 2004-05). The benefits of growth in terms of employment have gone largely to urbanised states in the years since liberalisation. This is the dark side of the employment growth story in recent years of structural reform.

There has been increasing diversification across sectors on Indian states, though the rate of diversification varies across states. Employment growth is faster in states that have had initially more diversified economies. It is important to note that low income states have more concentrated structures to begin with and it is changing at a much slower pace. Interstate disparities in the level and changes in diversification are obviously the cause of interstate income disparities. Slow diversification in some of the major states such as Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan is certainly a matter of concern for state policy. The slow rate of diversification of economic activity is a key factor of the slow growth of employment in low income states.

Spatial measures of concentration indicate varying changes across sectors. In the subgroup finance and business services, spatial concentration rises sharply in 1993-94 and shows some marginal decline in between but increases again in the last year 2004-05. This supports the proposition that skilled labour-intensive activities are getting geographically concentrated over time, which may explain the higher regional income disparities observed earlier in the paper.

Across states, the unorganised/informal sector has absorbed the additions to the

Table 15: Gross Enrolment Ratios – 2003-04

State	Upper Primary (11-14 years)	Secondary (14-18 years)
Bihar	25.3	17.9
Orissa	54.0	31.7
Uttar Pradesh	43.6	31.7
Rajasthan	61.5	32.6
Madhya Pradesh	63.3	34.9
West Bengal	64.3	31.6
Andhra Pradesh	64.9	41.6
Karnataka	76.2	47.7
Kerala	83.1	48.0
Tamil Nadu	107.2	61.2
Gujarat	77.4	41.0
Haryana	77.5	41.1
Maharashtra	87.0	51.9
Punjab	87.1	31.0
All India	62.4	38.9

Source (2007, Table A2) based on Selected Educational Statistics 2003-04

workforce in the period 1993-94 to 2004-05. More importantly, the private sector within the organised sector has created substantial absolute number of employment in three states, namely, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka and Gujarat. At the same time, the low income states show a net contraction of employment in the private sector. This provides us with a clue that the low income states are likely to have proportionately more low productivity jobs created in recent years.

Manufacturing labour productivity is higher in the high income states. However, the unregistered manufacturing productivity falling is relative to registered manufacturing over time. This is consistent with the creation of informal low productivity jobs in recent years.

Educational attainment differs widely across states, with the low income states having much lower levels of young individuals

in secondary and higher secondary education. Non-agricultural labour productivity has grown faster in states with initially higher educational attainment.

The structure of interstate disparities is defined by employment outcomes. The employment inequalities observed in this paper need to be further investigated along two lines: first, by examining the interstate differences in the quality of employment in terms of self-employment, regular employment and casual labour. Second, the relationship between employment, labour productivity and wages across states overtime. States with better supply of secondary school educated workers are likely to attract more investment and jobs coming in their way. The creation of a labour force, employable and amenable to skill training and up-grading, is an uphill task. States will have to find ways of meeting this challenge.

NOTES

- For a brief review of studies of regional income disparities see Ramaswamy (2007).
- I am grateful P P Sahu for providing me the mid-year estimates for the first three time points, namely, 1983, 1993-94 and 1999-2000. They are based on inter-censal interpolations based on the 1981, 1991 and the 2001 population censuses. The estimates for 2004-05 are based on population projections for India and states, 2001-2026 prepared by the technical group on population projections constituted by the National Commission on Population, May 2006. This report is available on the internet: www.censusindia.net. The employment estimates were separately calculated for male and female in workers in rural and urban areas in each state and then summed to arrive at employment numbers.
- The estimates not reported here to save space, see Ramaswamy (2007).
- A word about the employment concept used in the NSS surveys would be useful before we move on to the state level analysis of income and employment. The employment data in India is based on the quinquennial surveys carried out by the National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) of the Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation (MOSPI). The estimate of employed (worker) according to the usual principal status and subsidiary status includes the person who (a) either worked for a relatively longer part of the 365 days preceding the date of survey, and (b) also those persons from among the remaining population who had worked at least 30 days during the reference period of 365 days preceding the date of survey.
- The GDP estimates are taken from the national accounts statistics data available at www.mospi.nic.in (accessed on February 15, 2007). Mid-year population figures for each state is taken from the CMIE data document 'National Accounts Statistics, October 2006'. For some states, the mid-year populations for 2004-05 is estimated using the reported on per capita figures and verified using data in economic surveys of respective state governments. The growth rates of GDP presented are compound growth rates based on two end points. This is done to maintain consistency with employment growth rates based on the NSS quinquennial EUS data in later sections.
- The rank of states does not undergo dramatic changes in India as shown by Shetty (2003). Some positions change only with in groups.
- There are others like the Gini coefficient for the inequality of sector shares used by Imbs and Wacziarg (2003). They also use HH index as an alternative index. There is actually no strong reason to prefer one or the other measure of dispersion. The HH index is the simplest and easiest to compute.
- This is equal to $1/n$, where n is the number of sectors and all the sectors having an equal share.
- This has come into prominence in the new economic geography literature. The index of locational Gini is estimated to address this issue. See Amiti (1998) for a good discussion.
- Here, I take the total to be the aggregate employment of the selected 14 states in order to maintain the focus on the 14 states.
- These are accessible at <http://www.mospi.nic.in>, retrieved on April 10, 2007.
- Exclude from the non-agricultural sector mining and electricity as they are dominated by natural resource distribution and government ownership.

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Research Programmes for Engaged Social Sciences

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A report on a national consultation on the state of social sciences and future directions that was held recently at the National Institute of Advanced Studies, Bangalore.

Significant transformations of the Indian economy, polity and society over the last two decades raise one important question: Have the social sciences in India been able to understand and adequately interpret this change? Some of the superficial signs are not entirely encouraging. If the Nehruvian Second Plan strategy was built around the work of academics like Mahalanobis, the intellectual inspiration for the liberalisation process has largely come from within government. Indeed, there are even some signs that the gap between the social sciences and the demands society is making of them is being filled by those outside Indian academia.

The report of the fourth Indian Council for Social Science Research review committee looked at the books published by the top eight academic publishers in India. A third of these books were written by foreigners or non-resident Indians. More important, of the remaining, well over a fifth was accounted for by independent researchers.

The very real gap between social sciences in India and the demands society is making of them has caused some introspection among social scientists themselves. But no matter how intellectually rigorous such an exercise is, it still reflects only one side of the picture. It raises, and answers, questions social scientists think are important. It is just possible though that these questions are not always the ones that are at the top of the mind of others in society who are looking to the social sciences for insights. It is important then to look at the issue not just from the point of view of social scientists but also from the perspective of those who engage with the social sciences, whether they are policymakers, industry, non-government organisations (NGOs), or anyone else. To this end the National Institute of Advanced Studies organised a consultation, 'Towards Engaged Social Sciences' in Bangalore on

October 29 and 30, 2007, which brought together social scientists and those who engage in the social sciences. At the end of two days, the consultation came up with a number of recommendations that pointed to an alternative way forward.

Different Voices

The road to these recommendations was not the usual one. As was only to be expected, the social scientists and representatives of NGOs, industry or government did not always speak the same language. On the question of corruption, in particular, the differences were quite striking. The social scientists tended to treat corruption as an externality, even if a debilitating one. Corruption for them was a major reason why effective policies could not be implemented. Those outside the social sciences, on the other hand, tended to place corruption at the centre of their analysis, repeatedly beginning their analysis with an attempt to understand this phenomenon.

The wide range of the issues covered and the sheer diversity of the views expressed made it quite futile to seek complete unanimity among the participants. At the same time any consistent ground that emerged from such a diverse set of views would clearly be well worth carrying forward. In the search for such common ground, the participants were requested, in the concluding session after listening to each other for two days, to come up with specific suggestions pointing to the way forward for social sciences in India. They then came up with a variety of suggestions which, despite all the diversity in opinions and backgrounds, appeared to have a degree of consistency. Indeed, the suggestions could fit quite easily into a consistent framework of recommendations.

Research Programmes

The main thrust of these recommendations was that social science research should be organised in terms of research programmes that could be financed by the government, private sources or a combination of the two. This was based on the recognition that social science research is becoming increasingly dependent on project funding. These projects, whether they are from the government or industry, typically come with specific questions for

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which the social scientist is expected to provide the answers. These questions, more often than not, are focused on issues of immediate concern. Important as these issues are, the healthy growth of the social sciences as well as a meaningful understanding of society, requires us to also raise questions before they become matters of immediate concern. Social scientists thus also need to raise questions and develop theories which they might not always be able to do under conditions of project-based research alone. The way out would be to focus on broad research programmes built around specific issues. Such programmes would address not just matters of immediate concern but also theoretical and other related issues.

Each programme would have to be managed by a core group. Researchers from across the country would then be able to approach the programme for support for individual projects including theoretical ones. As long as the core group believes that the individual project is consistent with the overall aims of the programme it would be financed. Such programmes would thus be able to draw on research talent from institutions across the country, and can address broad issues in a more comprehensive manner. The knowledge generated by these programmes would be of use to all those who engage with the social sciences.

Policymakers, NGOs, industry and others will be able to find not just answers for questions on their minds, but also to questions that are important for their work but had not occurred to them. Since such programmes would benefit all those who engage with the social sciences, they are likely to find financial support from the government, private sources or public-private partnerships.

Strengthening Institutions

The success of these programmes would depend on the talent they can draw from institutions across the country. Thus rather than programmes replacing institutions, the two would have to grow together. The programmes would thus have to be accompanied by measures to strengthen institutions. This would have to begin with measures to recognise successful social science institutions. This could be done by

institutionalising the practice of providing substantial corpus funds to institutions with a proven track record. The government has given substantial grants to individual institutions that have gained reputations of their own. This process could be institutionalised by laying down predetermined criteria that will make institutions eligible for such corpus funding.

Institutions that meet a specified minimum standard can be eligible for a specific corpus funding; those that have established higher standards can be eligible for a larger corpus. Institutions that have demonstrated an ability to function on their own will then gain greater autonomy through a larger corpus. Such a mechanism could also be related to periodic reviews of the functioning of institutions so that they are aware of just how close they are to achieving the prescribed norms.

Better Compensation

The problem with institutions is however not a matter of finances alone. There is also a need to put in place a system that generates high quality social science research professionals in the required numbers. Here again the first step could be in the form of recognition. This could be done by increasing the amounts paid to national professors and offering it to younger social scientists who have established research credentials. There is a need to encourage social scientists between the ages of 40 and 45 who have demonstrated an ability to do high quality research and could benefit by being given a free hand for a fixed period of time. The category of national professors could be used to provide them the resources needed to work on issues of their own choice for a period of, say, five years.

Beyond providing recognition, there is a need to improve the quality of researchers as well as their numbers. The quality of research in research institutions as well as teaching in universities today is negatively affected by, among other factors, the substantial and growing distinction on the ground between institutions that teach and those that do research. This sharp distinction ensures that the latest research findings are not known to teachers, and researchers do not have the benefit of having their ideas challenged by young minds.

This gap could be bridged by cross-deputation. Researchers could be deputed for fixed periods of time to teaching institutions in exchange for teachers being deputed to research institutions. Such cross-deputation should have the effect of improving teaching, or at least making it more in touch with the latest research. But this process alone would not be enough. There is a need to substantially alter the textbooks so that they reflect the latest developments in each field.

Bilingual Research

The quality of research and teaching is also adversely affected by having a purely English-based social science while society functions in other languages. This directly affects the dissemination of the research to a wider audience. More importantly, there are insights to be gained by engaging with society through the local languages which are not always captured by a unilingual (English-dominated) research process. This difficulty has grown in recent years as in earlier decades there were social scientists who wrote in more than one language. There is thus a need to expand the scope of bilingual research and teaching.

In addition to providing the finances and the talent for research programmes, there is also a need to improve the quality and availability of data. A recurring theme during the consultation was the existence of a data crisis. Agricultural economists in particular were worried about the quality of the data that was being generated by surveys. With satellites now generating images with one metre resolution, it was felt that the use of satellite imagery for crop and land use data needs to be explored urgently. If satellite imagery can provide accurate data for smaller areas, it will also help crop insurance by providing at least a preliminary idea of the production on the land of individual farmers. There is thus an urgent need to explore the potential to use satellite imagery for data on agriculture.

Concerns about the availability of data were also raised in the health sector. While hospitals had a large amount of data, this was not available to social scientists, possibly because of concerns about the privacy of patients. If privacy is protected through effective guarantees of anonymity, it should be possible to provide this data to social

scientists. There is thus a need to create a system where health records maintained by hospitals are used to generate data that could be used by social scientists with the guarantee of anonymity for patients.

There was also a concern expressed that the data that are currently being generated are not being utilised to their full potential as they are not made available to the larger fraternity of researchers. ICSSR institutions today generate a substantial amount of data through projects of their own. This data needs to be put into a sharable database so that it can be shared by a broader set of social scientists. There is thus a need to create a sharable database of information on research data across all ICSSR institutions. Such a database can also be tapped by those who engage with the social sciences from industry, government and NGOs.

An effective research programme that expects to attract research talent from institutions spread out across the country will also have to improve communications among social scientists themselves. To this end it becomes important to establish a Social Science Network. The consultation reflected the gaps in the awareness of the social scientists themselves of the research being done in different parts of

the country. This was particularly true of research being carried out at the MPhil and PhD levels. It was felt that an online Social Science Network would help reduce this gap. The online nature of this network would also provide an effective link for researchers in the more remote parts of the country. This would help Indian social science as a whole engage with issues in remote areas in the country.

Online Dissemination

Since one of the main objectives of the research programmes would be to make available high quality social science inputs to those who engage with the social sciences at least some of its success would depend on it being accessible to those outside the social sciences. This could be helped by establishing an online mechanism for the dissemination of research results to a wider audience. The lack of information and accessibility was highlighted as a key concern by all participants. Those who were not social scientists in particular emphasised how difficult it was for them to access research findings. It was felt that information about research findings should be provided to those who could use them whether they were in government, industry, NGOs or in any other field.

In short, the recommendations are: (i) Social science research should be organised in terms of research programmes that could be financed by the government, private sources or a combination of the two. (ii) Institutionalise the practice of providing substantial corpus funds to institutions with a proven track record. (iii) Increase the amounts paid to national professors and offer it to younger social scientists who have established research credentials. (iv) Depute researchers to teaching institutions in exchange for teachers being deputed to research institutions. (v) Substantially alter textbooks so that they reflect the latest developments in each field. (vi) Expand the scope of bilingual research and teaching. (vii) Explore the potential to use satellite imagery for data on agriculture. (viii) Create a system where health records maintained by hospitals are used to generate data that could be used by social scientists with the guarantee of anonymity for the patients. (ix) Create a sharable database of information on research data across all ICSSR institutions. (x) Establish a Social Science Network, and (xi) Establish an online mechanism for the dissemination of research results to a wider audience.

